

Elementary English

A Magazine of the Language Arts

MARCH 1961

READING

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WRITING

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SPEAKING

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LISTENING

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SPELLING

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ENGLISH USAGE

•
CHILDREN'S BOOKS

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RADIO AND
TELEVISION

•
AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

•
POETRY

•
CREATIVE
WRITING

JESSE STUART

FIFTY YEARS OF READING INSTRUCTION

READING, A FORWARD LOOK

LANGUAGE ARTS RESEARCH, 1960

WILLIAM SCOTT GRAY, 1885-1960



From *Birthday Candles Burning Bright*. Selected
by Sara and John E. Brewton. (See p. 204)

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MARCH, 1961

NO. 3

PAUL C. BURNS AND RUTH HINES

Kentucky Is His Home

"He is the perfect type of born poet."

"One of America's truly great regional writers."

"One finds many a gold nugget in the Kentucky clay."

These comments could apply to only one person—Jesse Stuart, an author of renown in the area of adult literature and more lately a contributor of some note in the field of juvenile literature.

Jesse Stuart perhaps first attracted national attention when one of his famous novels, *Taps for Private Tussie*, was a Book-of-the-Month-Club selection in 1943. He has written poetry, short stories, novels and autobiography. His account of his convalescence from a heart attack, *The Year of My Rebirth*, has received wide attention. His most recently published book, *God's Oddling*, tells the story of his father, Mitch Stuart, a man unable to read or write, but nevertheless an "educated man" with a remarkable spirit.

All his work, in prose or poetry, has for

its setting the Appalachian hill country—more particularly his native Greenup County in eastern Kentucky. This has always been his home. Jesse Stuart was born in W-Hollow near Riverton, Kentucky. He attended a one-room school.

At the age of ten he left school for a time and worked on a farm. Later he returned to high school. After his third year of high school he went to teach for a year in a one-room school. At the end of that year he went back to finish high school; then he worked for a year in a steel mill. His desire for more education caused him to leave this job to go to college. He hitchhiked to Lincoln Memorial University with the sum of \$29.30 in his pockets. Three years later he graduated from this school, having paid

his expenses with the money he earned from the work he did on the campus. Although he could have made more money in some other field, he returned to the work he loved—teaching. He later attended Vanderbilt University and Peabody College for Teachers at Nashville. His promise as an author was encouraged by Dr. Crabb at Peabody who was instrumental in helping Stuart receive a Guggenheim Fellowship



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to go to Europe and study for a year. He dated his wife for seventeen years before he was financially able to offer marriage. He lives at present on a farm near Riverton with his wife Naomi Deane and his daughter Jessica Jane.

Jesse Stuart is an author—but he is first a teacher. He began in one-room schools, where he taught all eight grades, and then high school; served as principal of rural and city high schools; and finally became a superintendent of city and county school systems. He desperately believed that teaching is the greatest profession in the world; but left teaching to return to his life of raising sheep, lecturing, and writing novels. Yet his heart always was in the schoolroom and with boys and girls. Why else would a successful writer of such adult books as *Man with a Bull-Tongue Plow*, *Head o' W-Hollow*, *Kentucky Is My Land*, *Plowshare in Heaven* and the autobiographical *The Thread That Runs So True* turn to children's literature in the form of *The Beatinest Boy*, *A Penny's Worth of Character*, and *Red Mule* (all published by Whittlesey House—McGraw-Hill Book Co.)?

At the beginning of Stuart's book about his teaching career is this quotation from Daniel Webster:

"If we work upon marble, it will perish; if we work upon brass, time will efface it; if we rear temples, they will crumble into dust; but if we work upon immortal minds, if we imbue them with principles, with just fear of God and love of our fellowmen, we engrave on those tablets something which will brighten to all eternity."

This statement exemplifies the life, thinking, and writing of Jesse Stuart and so it is not surprising to find this approach in his writing for boys and girls. Consider briefly the plots of *The Beatinest Boy*, *A Penny's Worth of Character*, and *Red Mule*. They might be likened somewhat to an Aesop's Fable or a modern McGuffey

story. He tells of children's good untrained minds, but also of their sterling character. Through his writing of stories for children, he aims to help youth to find a path that will lead through fields of frustration and modern pitfalls of destruction until he finds his best self.

He is telling modern youth that "man does not live by bread alone." He points again and again to the good, the essentially and potentially fine characteristics that are to be found—and developed—in children.

Jesse Stuart's first and best-known book for children is *The Beatinest Boy*. "Beatinest" is an adjective that may not be too familiar to those outside the southern highlands. It is defined by Webster as, "surpassing all others, must unusual." The beatinest boy of this story is David, an orphan boy who went to live with his grandmother in the Kentucky hills. He had not been too happy at first, but he soon found that his Grandma Beverly was a wonderful woman. She taught him many things and even helped him to save the life of a sick little hound that he found abandoned in the woods. As Christmas drew near, David wanted to get something especially nice for Grandma Beverly, but he had no money for a gift. He decided to catch possums and sell the skins for money to buy a gift. He caught the possums, but he felt such compassion for the little animals that he turned them loose again. Then he planned to go alone to rob a bee tree and sell the honey, but Grandma Beverly wanted to go along and help him and they kept the honey for their own use. The solution to David's problem was found when a neighbor gave him some feed sacks and showed him how to use them to make a fringed tablecloth and napkins, a gift which pleased his grandmother very much. Grandma Beverly also

had surprises for "the beatinest boy" on Christmas morning.

This story of a boy and his grandmother is beautifully told, for Mr. Stuart actually knew such a boy. It points up the resourcefulness and initiative of the boy and his respect for the knowledge and experience of his elders. It graphically illustrates the point that the best gifts are not always bought with money.

In *A Penny's Worth of Character*, Shan, a boy who loved chocolate bars and lemon soda pop, was sent to the store to get some things for his mother. She allowed him to take the paper sacks they had saved to trade for candy. There were nine good sacks, but the tenth one had a hole in it and his mother told him not to take it. Shan needed ten sacks to get a dime to buy his favorite chocolate bar and lemon soda pop. He decided to slip in the one with the hole, hoping that the storekeeper would not notice it. His plan worked and he got the candy and pop, but somehow it did not taste as good as usual. When he reached home again his mother had discovered what he had done. She found another good sack and made Shan take it to the storekeeper. The second trip to the store was not a happy one for Shan. It was very hard for him to make his confession to the storekeeper, but when he had done so, he was treated kindly and he felt "as light as a June bug in the August wind." This is a refreshing story of honesty much needed in these days when it is so often considered "smart" to be dishonest if one can avoid detection.

Red Mule is the story of Scrapper Lykins and his friend Red Mule, a man who was something of an outcast in his little mountain town. Tractors seemed about to replace the mule, doing much of the work that Red Mule and his faithful team, Dick and Dinah, had been doing in the town,

but Red Mule believed that there was a place for the mule and devoted himself to saving as many as possible. The boy Scrapper, who also loved mules and worked with Red Mule and his team in his spare time, became a partner in this enterprise. He soon learned that the partnership brought responsibility. With the aid of his father, Scrapper was able to meet the challenge for a while. Then the mules proved their worth when they pulled out the tractors after they became stuck in the mud. Finally a letter Scrapper sent to the President of the United States brought a government agent interested in buying mules to be sent overseas for use in underdeveloped countries. So the mules were saved and Scrapper and Red Mule had a good business.

These are the things Jesse Stuart can say to children as easily as he tells adults of mountain funerals, deserted coal mine camps, mountain poorhouses, log shacks, and lonesome waters. Why? He is giving of experiences which are his to give. He has lived, seen, and heard the things of which he writes. He puts it this way:

"I take with me Kentucky embedded in my
brain and heart
In my flesh and bone and blood
Since I am of Kentucky
And Kentucky is part of me."

("Kentucky Is My Land," N.Y.: E.P. Dutton and Co., Inc., 1952)

The characters of his juvenile books are realistically portrayed; they talk and act as people of their particular education and cultural backgrounds would normally talk and act. The sincerity of the author is immediately noticeable. His are books with substance; books that contribute to the well-being of children. Stuart points up the value of work and the satisfaction in a job well done; honesty; love of nature; thoughtfulness of others. There is nothing pendantic or "preachy" about his style.

His regional stories picture a way of life that is rapidly changing. They are of interest to those unfamiliar with the region, and are read with nostalgia by those who have known the same type of people and a similar way of life.

But why attempt to describe the author's writings when the words themselves could speak much better?

For example, here's a selection from *The Beatinest Boy* revealing David's feeling for animals:

Then he walked on slowly, thinking how the possums lived in hollow logs, cliffs, and dirt holes. He thought about how they had to hunt at night for persimmons, pawpaws, and old apple orchards. They must often go hungry, he thought as he stopped and took the sack from his shoulder. He untied the sack and looked at the three possums. "If I kill you," he said to the possums, "I'll only get your hides. Kill you for your hides! Every time I wear this coonskin cap I think of the night Boliver shot the coon from the tree! I think of how much more the skin was worth to the coon than it is to me."

Then David sat there looking at the possums. "Little one, I'm going to turn you loose," he said, looking at the tiny possum. "I know I'm not going to kill you for your little hide. It wouldn't be worth twenty-five cents. I'm going to let you go back to your mother. And I don't want to kill you either," he said softly to the big possums that were looking up at him with fear in their headily bright eyes. "Grandma wouldn't want me to kill you for your hides. I'll find another way to buy her a present." (pp. 62-63)

Here's a description from *A Penny's Worth of Character* telling of a boy's feeling when he goes to make things right with the storekeeper:

Earlier in the morning, when Shan had gone to the store with his ten sacks, the world had belonged to him. But now it was different. He walked under a hot sun down the dusty road and this world didn't belong to him. This was a world he didn't want. When he reached the giant sycamore where he had watched the big red-headed woodpecker early that morning boring for worms, he stopped long enough to look up to see if the bird was back again, for it would soon

be time for lunch. But the woodpecker had gone and the dead limb looked hot and dry in the August sunlight. He wondered where the woodpecker had gone and if he was in a cool nest in some hollow tree with his family of young birds away from the hot sun. (pp. 49-50)

But there wasn't anything left for him to do but to face Mr. Conley. To think of returning this sack made his face get hotter than the sun could make it. He tried to think of what to say. But his tongue got heavy again. It was as lazy as the wind and didn't want to speak these words. It would only be a few minutes. He couldn't tell his heart to beat slower and he couldn't keep his face from getting hotter. (p. 53)

Shan felt as light as a June bug in the August wind. He knew now how Abraham Lincoln had felt after he had returned the pennies. Something had left him, and he started running up the Valley road for home. The blue sky above him was as beautiful as he had ever seen it. A red bird chirruped lazily from a cluster of pawpaws and its chirruping was more beautiful than its spring song before an April shower. A hawk sailed over in the lazy wind and it was pretty too. Shan didn't feel anything now. His mother had been right when she said he would feel better within. How did she know all these things? He knew now that his mother was smart and good. (pp. 60-61)

The illustrator of the juvenile books, Robert G. Renneberger, has seemed to catch the spirit of the stories and add to their charm through the refreshing drawings.

It is to be hoped that Jesse Stuart will continue for a long time to bring his many talents to the field of literature for young children. The reasons are obvious: Here is indeed a born storyteller. His plots are simple, straight-forward. A poetic quality in his use of language, full of word pictures, adds to the charm and appeal of his stories.

Mr. Stuart will live on and on in the hearts of children, for his writing is inspirational, and stands firm for good values and character training. He—like "truth and beauty"—is forever and immortal.

What Have We Accomplished in Reading?---A Review of the Past Fifty Years

This last half-century stands out as a truly golden period in the progress of reading instruction. More innovations have been effected in reading during the last fifty years than during the entire three hundred years antedating this period of American history. I am sure that progress has been equally notable in the other phases of the language arts constellation. It is most appropriate that accomplishments in all of the language arts areas be reviewed upon this momentous occasion—the Golden Anniversary of The National Council of Teachers of English!

Progress in reading instruction has been marked by a succession of turning points. For a period of years reading methods and materials all over the country are quite similar—so similar, in fact, that an unbiased examiner might arrive at the conclusion that all had been turned out of the same mold, with just a slightly different crimp here and there in the contour of the pan. Then, rather suddenly, a new plan becomes popular, and we teach reading in this manner until another turning point arrives. Thus, epoch after epoch of reading instruction passes (26).

Fortunately printed records are available to which we can turn in delineating these epochs and ascertaining their characteristics. In attempting to obtain information to bring to you about reading epochs during our recent half century the following

source materials, published between 1910 and 1960, were explored: prominent educational magazines that usually contain reading articles, yearbooks of learned societies, summaries of published investigations in reading, lists of unpublished master's and doctoral researches completed or under way. More than 300 pieces of materials were surveyed for the purpose of picking up the sequence of events and trends which marked the pilgrimage of reading in its upward march from 1910 to the present time. This information will be presented to you by decades.

Accomplishments from 1910 to 1920

The dramatic decade beginning with 1910 ushered in the first truly great breakthrough in reading progress. This was the birth of the scientific movement in education. In 1909 Thorndike made the initial presentation of his handwriting scale before a meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and in 1910 it was published (29). Generally speaking, the publication of the Thorndike scale has been recognized as the beginning of the contemporary movement for measuring educational products scientifically. In the immediately ensuing years scales and tests appeared rapidly: Courtis arithmetic tests, Hilligas' Composition Scale, Buckingham Spelling Scale—and then a reading test—The Gray Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs (13). This test was published in 1915. Other reading tests followed shortly.

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reading was initiated during the latter part of the preceding period, but it didn't really take hold as a nation-wide classroom practice until during the years of 1920 to 1925. This sudden and widespread reversal in practice was largely due to two influences: the development of tests which revealed that silent reading was superior to oral reading in speed and comprehension; and the publication of The Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education. As already indicated, one article each appeared in the Sixteenth (16) and the Eighteenth (17) Yearbooks. The climax, however, came with the publication of the Twentieth Yearbook, Part II (19) of which was devoted entirely to the report of the "Society's Committee on Silent Reading." Following the appearance of this Yearbook, "textbook writers began to produce readers based on silent reading procedures; other authors prepared professional books on silent reading; teachers busied themselves in preparing exercises that would check comprehension of silent reading by means of drawings, true-false statements or completion sentences and so forth. The whole country for a time seemed to be obsessed with the idea of teaching silent reading" (25).

This extreme emphasis, however, was soon balanced with other factors. By 1925 the novelty of the new idea had worn off, somewhat; investigations revealed some unique uses of oral reading, school people discovered that there still were some special needs for oral reading in the school program. Perhaps, the culminating influence came with the publication of the Twenty-Fourth Yearbook, Part I (20) which appeared in 1925. This Yearbook advocated a broader program of reading instruction which among other things recognized both oral and silent reading. New courses of study, professional books and readers immediately reflected the broadened ob-

jectives of this Yearbook and methods during the years 1925-1930 were shaped largely by its contents. So during the first two decades of the last fifty years we progressed from extreme oral reading to extreme silent reading to a broader program which recognized both. In my opinion, this was an indication of real accomplishment.

As for individual differences: with the administration of the newly developed tests, a very great fundamental truth became apparent with a violent impact—the realization that there were wide individual differences in the reading achievement of children, in the same grade and in the same classroom. This discovery spurred school people to experiment with a variety of adjustments in classroom organization and instruction, designed to cope with this newly revealed variation in the learning rate of children.

There were reports of adjustments made in classrooms which maintained the regular organization such as ability grouping, flexible promotions, and differentiated assignments. But the pulsating new idea was that of breaking up class organization entirely to permit of individual progression. This plan of organization received as much attention at this time as it is receiving at the present moment. Speeches, articles, and Yearbooks dealt with the subject. San Francisco; Los Angeles; Detroit; Winnetka; Madison, Wisconsin; and other school systems reported (21) results they had obtained by individual instruction. The states of Connecticut and Illinois reported (21) experiments in individualizing instruction in rural schools.

The various plans, on the whole, were patterned after the Winnetka or the Dalton ideas, in both of which individual progression in reading and other subjects was made possible by means of assignments in

As a result of the strong new surge of interest in placing education on a scientific basis together with its correlative motives for developing instruments of measurement, we would naturally expect that the scientific study of reading problems would take a vigorous spurt. And this it did.

Through all the years up to 1910 only 34 studies had been reported in reading. During the 1910-20 decade, 200 accounts appeared, about six times as many as had been reported during the entire history of reading preceding this time. These studies had to do mostly with tests and school surveys as would be expected.

As for method: the most revolutionary thing happened that had happened since clergy began to teach reading in churches, and dames began to teach reading in kitchens. "For hundreds of years oral reading had maintained a supreme and undisputed claim on teaching methods" (25). During this decade, however, the concept of teaching *silent* reading burst into our slumbering complacency like a bombshell. It came suddenly and in the midst of a period in which school people were serenely content in the use of sentence-story methods applied to the oral reading of selections in literary readers. For the most part they continued to use these practices to the end of the decade but the startling new idea was at least launched. Discussions of the advantages of silent reading appeared for the first time in the Sixteenth (16) and in the Eighteenth (17) Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education. Speakers at educational conventions began to talk about it, magazine articles began to discuss it. The idea had been born.

To sum up: developing the concept of applying scientific techniques to the study of reading, devising standardized instruments to measure reading achievement, increasing the number of studies tremendously, initiating the silent reading idea.

These seem to have been the major accomplishments from 1910 to 1920.

Accomplishments from 1920 to 1930

The period extending from 1920 to 1930 is perhaps the most golden decade in this golden era of progress in so far as fundamental changes in reading practices are concerned. These changes were largely due to the scientific movement which had shaped up during the preceding period and which now was opening up fresh wells of information with improved and extended applications.

The new studies conducted during this decade carried with them three distinct earmarks of progress: the number increased tremendously; they covered a wider scope of problems; many of them were conducted in classrooms by teachers and other school personnel, rather than being confined to the laboratory.

As to the number of investigations: Gray's summaries reveal that 763 were reported as compared with 200 during the preceding decade. This unprecedented increase reflected the zeal and enthusiasm with which school people were searching for more information about the important subject of reading.

The studies of this period probed a variety of problems, but there were three problem areas which were most highly significant. They were significant because they resulted in sweeping changes in practice. These three areas were: (1) silent reading, (2) individual differences, and (3) remedial reading.

The first half of this decade might well be called "The Age of Silent Reading." "These years were marked with an exaggerated, often exclusive emphasis on silent reading as opposed to the traditional oral reading techniques" (25). As previously mentioned, the concept of teaching silent

their climax of frequency in 1940 when Gray reported 22 studies relating to this topic in one year. Since that time the number has decreased steadily.

Turning to unpublished research, this was the hey-day of aspiring masters and doctors in finding problems for research in the readiness area. The first doctoral dissertation on readiness was reported in 1927. From that time on, the number of master and doctoral studies increased, reaching its peak in the years 1937 to 1940. Fourteen such studies were completed in 1937, 15 in 1938, 14 in 1939, and 12 in 1940. Since that time only 2 or 3 academic studies on readiness have been reported each year.

A similar trend is seen in published articles on reading readiness. Periodicals abounded with discussions on readiness topics from 1930 to 1940. Articles on this subject rarely appear in present-day literature.

In the light of this evidence, it may be concluded that this was the period of most vigorous emphasis, both on investigations of reading readiness and applications of the readiness theory. The concept has been accepted now and we hear little about it at the present time.

Remedial reading, which had experienced a touch-and-go recognition during the preceding period, now became established and gained stature. Many significant studies were conducted in the remedial reading areas: causes of difficulties, diagnosis, and corrective procedures. Professional books devoted exclusively to remedial reading were first published. Some laboratory studies were still made but the majority of studies now were conducted in schools. Remedial reading, which had started in laboratories, now became a topic for practical experimentation in the public schools themselves.

A new trend that began to emerge was that of giving beginning attention to high school, college, and adult reading. Studies made at these levels, however, were mostly concerned with interests in, and uses of reading, rather than with reading achievement and teaching procedure.

Every decade reviewed so far has been characterized by one or two events of great distinction. In the 1910-1920 decade, it was the application of scientific measurement and investigation to reading, in the 1920-'30 era, it was the startling innovations of silent reading and of individual progression. What was the spectacular event in the nineteen-thirties?

The Activity Movement swept the country during these years, and the startling new idea in reading was to teach this skill as a part of the Activity Program. In such a program children worked freely and spontaneously and actively in following their own interests; and teachers were intrigued with the new "game" of trying to get all of their subject matter across through "Units of Work."

In so far as reading was concerned, pupils had access to a considerable number of books bearing largely on the topic of their "Unit of Work." This was the first big impetus for bringing a quantity of books into the classroom for reading. There was a profusion of charts and school-made booklets growing out of children's interests. Pupils read functionally from their co-operatively prepared materials and out of many books in doing research in connection with their Units. In a word, this was how reading proceeded in the Activity Program in the thirties.

We no longer hear of the Activity Program at this time nor of the teaching of reading in connection with this program. The Activity Movement, however, made a vigorous impact on the teaching of reading

which the child worked through subject material that increased in small increments of difficulty. The important point to note is that attention to individual differences in reading received its first great impetus during this decade of remarkable progress.

The concept of *remedial* reading was launched from its small island of study during this period and sent out over unexplored seas in quest of answers to disability problems. The movement was spurred on by the use of standardized tests. These tests revealed that thousands of boys and girls were failing each year to make normal progress in reading. Published reports of work in the reading disability field indicate that the chief interest at this time was in diagnosing individual cases. As for method, it was during this period that Fernald evolved her kinesthetic method, and that Orton expounded his theory on mixed dominance and the treatment that accompanied it. Remedial reading did get under way during this period.

In beginning reading there also were innovations. Experience charts first came into use. The Nineteenth Yearbook (18), published in 1920, dealt with reading materials. In it examples were given of charts based on children's experiences, and the practice of introducing children to beginning reading through the use of such material was advocated. This practice was not widely accepted until much later, but progress had been made in evolving the idea.

And last but not least, mention must be made of another mark of progress which clearly stamped itself into the later annals of this decade. The reading readiness concept began to take shape at this time.

In 1926 the International Kindergarten Union in cooperation with the United States Bureau of Education conducted an investigation on "Pupils' Readiness for

Reading Instruction upon Entrance to First Grade." The first articles on this subject were published in *Childhood Education* in January, 1927. Two of these articles used the term "reading readiness." In so far as I am aware, this was the first time that this phrase crept into our reading vocabulary (27). In Gray's summaries published in 1928, he reported for the first time three studies on reading readiness. A few master's theses and a trickling of articles on this subject also appeared before the close of the decade. The new concept, however, was still in the formative stage, and little was done about it in a practical way until the following period, but the movement was on its way.

Much more could be said about the accomplishments made during this unprecedented period. I should like to dwell longer on the accumulation of information gathered about reading and the auspicious innovations in classroom practice that were inaugurated at this time, but I must pass on to other conquests and other days.

Accomplishments from 1930 to 1940

This period may be characterized largely as one of extension and application rather than one of revelation and initiation.

Investigations continued at an accelerated pace. In round figures about 1200 studies were reported between 1930 and 1940. Not only were these studies greater in number, but they were superior in isolation of problems, in designs, and in controls.

Some of the embryo ideas that had sprouted in the preceding decade came into full bloom and fruited profusely at this time. For example: the reading readiness interest reached its zenith in this period (27). Published investigations on this topic increased steadily during each successive year of this decade (9), reaching

and other subjects at this time—an impact so strong that its influence still continues. The Activity Movement distracted the school public from its age-old concept of schools centered almost exclusively on subject-matter goals to schools in which consideration is given to the child, himself, his stage of development, his interests, his activities, his choices and his decisions.

In summary, we may say that progress in this decade was characterized by continuing investigations, greater in number, higher in quality than in the preceding decade; intensive application of the readiness concept; transfer of remedial activities from laboratory to classroom; beginning attention to reading at higher levels; and wide-spread interest in teaching reading as an integral part of the Activity Program.

Accomplishments from 1940 to 1950

An event resulting from progress in science overshadowed all other indications of progress during this period. The "birth-day of the atomic age" is officially set as December 2, 1942, when Dr. Enrico Fermi turned on the first successful nuclear energy machine in Chicago. The first atomic bomb destroyed Hiroshima on August 6, 1945. On the face of things this terrifying discovery with its possibilities for good or for evil reduced to comparative insignificance our little scientific achievements in reading. Yet, could this achievement have been possible without reading? Can we cope adequately with its future destructive or beneficent effects, as the case may be, without more efficient reading skill and a wider reading citizenry? The atomic age and reading immediately become interactive.

But we didn't realize this at the time. We were too close to this earth-shaking event to sense its import for reading instruction. The war probably only had two

immediate effects on reading. One of these was a diminution in the number of reading investigations. This was probably due to the fact that many of the psychologists and educators who conducted research in reading, or stimulated others to do so, were in the armed services.

The other major effect of the war was the shocking discovery that at this day and age thousands of young men in the military service could not read well enough to follow the simple printed instructions for camp life. Coupled with this discovery was the revelation that reading could be taught to these young men in army camps in an amazingly short time. Concurrently, several new investigations disclosed reading deficiencies in large numbers of high school and college students. These several influences combined to produce a spurt in attention to reading at these higher levels. Immediately following the war, a great deal of professional literature on reading emerged and among these publications several bulletins and one Yearbook appeared dealing with high school and college reading. Chief among these publications was a bulletin of the National Education Association titled *Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools* (15), and the Forty-Eighth Yearbook, Part II of The National Society for the Study of Reading, titled *Reading in High School and College* (24). The actual teaching of reading at these levels had not progressed far at this time but the idea was vigorously expanding.

During this period, reading in the content subjects also became a matter of wide discussion and the subject of a few investigations. The studies at this time pointed to the general conclusion that while good readers can read well in all subject fields, special practice in reading in particular subject areas is helpful to average and poor readers.

In the forties, wide recognition was given to the interrelationships amongst the language arts. Studies, articles, speeches were concerned with the relationship of reading to spelling, handwriting, vocabulary, and composition. As a result we came to recognize that reading was not an isolated skill independent of other skills used in the interchange of ideas, but that it was just one aspect of the total language arts constellation mutually dependent upon and interactive with all other skills in the communication dimension.

A strong new concern also sprang up in regard to the effects of three of the newer media for mass communication: comics, movies and radio. Television did not come in for much attention until the next decade but during this period wide dissemination of entertainment through the first named agencies stirred up worry on the part of school people and parents. They feared that interest in listening to radio, looking at comics, viewing movies would reduce interest in reading and thus decrease the amount of reading done. Numerous popular articles bemoaned the situation and pointed out its dangers. Several studies were conducted directed toward the exploration of students' interests in this area and finding out how much time they devoted to the offerings of these types. Thus initial steps were taken in obtaining information to combat what was thought to be the first threat to reading.

Remedial diagnosis and treatment continued to claim a large segment of the spotlight. Mechanical instruments and devices which had been introduced during the preceding period increased in numbers and use. There were fewer studies reported on psychological factors such as dominance, handedness, eyedness, and reversals. An increasing number were devoted to personal factors as related to reading: personal

interests and attitudes, personal status in social, emotional, and experiential maturity. This attention to other growth and development factors as related to reading was certainly one of the most notable advances made during this period.

To sum up: the chief points of progress during this decade were: increased attention to teaching reading at the higher levels; growing attention to reading in the content subjects; concerns about mass communications; attempts to find relationships between reading and handwriting, spelling, vocabulary and composition; and perhaps, most important of all, a growing consciousness of the profound truth that reading doesn't develop in a vacuum by itself, but that it is part and parcel of general child development and is affected by all other aspects of child growth.

Accomplishments from 1950 to 1960

A most exciting decade! For one thing, interest in reading instruction became almost universal during this period. There was a time when primary teachers were the only people interested in the teaching of reading. Now teachers of all subjects and at all levels want to know more about reading. Parents are asking questions, pursuing books and articles on reading. Students at high-school and college levels and adults beyond college are flocking to reading centers. Slick magazines and laymen are discussing reading freely. A great conflagration of interest has been ignited amongst teachers and students, and more especially amongst the lay public. And this is good.

During this period, however, for the first time in history, reading instruction in American schools underwent harsh and severe criticism by laymen. School people maintained that the criticisms were unfair and rose to the defense of their methods

through articles, speeches, discussions, and investigations. Several comparative studies of "Then and Now" were made. These studies, on the whole, showed that we were teaching reading as well as or better than in preceding years.

Insofar as progress is concerned the criticism by laymen probably had three good effects: it caused school people to examine their present methods more carefully; it stimulated the interest of parents and other laymen in reading instruction; it offered motives and opportunities to school people to explain the research, psychology, and philosophy on which present methods are based. So in this situation, as is often the case in other situations, even criticism caused reading to move forward.

Perhaps as an off-shoot of interest and criticism, coupled with a growing awareness of the complexity of the reading process, there has been a spurt of activity in the re-instatement and increase of reading courses in the curriculums of teacher-training institutions. Concurrently with this interest in adding more courses, standards are being raised in regard to the qualifications of teachers of reading and of reading specialists. This movement toward better-trained teachers in reading is a big step forward.

As for the number of investigations: studies during this period reached incredible proportions. Gray reported over 1,000 studies in his 1960 summary, but in his introduction he said for the first time in his thirty-five years of annual summarizing, "The number of studies are increasing so rapidly that it is no longer possible to report all of them in this annual summary. Those referred to this year represent either a new or distinctive approach to a problem or suggest significant issues in need of further study." Not only was this increase ap-

parent in the published reports of reading investigations, but it also was reflected in the reports of dissertations completed or in progress which soared to new numerical heights, the number reported averaging about 90 per year as compared with about 50 in the preceding decade.

Advance is shown in the subjects of investigation. Reading in the content fields, adult reading deficiencies, and television as related to reading came in for strong additional attention. The most gratifying trend revealed, however, is that we are at present delving more deeply into the reading process and more broadly into the factors that affect it. The former popular topic of phonics now seems to have been replaced with studies of perception. Comprehension is no longer treated as a lump sum; the emphasis at present is upon the higher thinking processes of interpretation and critical reading. The old readiness studies are replaced with investigations of prediction and expectancy. Remedial reading is not so much concerned now with studies of gadgets and specific teaching remedies as it is with organismic and personality factors. Parental personality, attitudes, and interactions with the child as related to reading entered the research scene for the first time during this period, and many reading investigations concerned with parents and their children are now being reported. Studies are made in regard to the climate of the classroom and its effect on reading. This mere glimpse at some of the subjects of the most recent studies is indicative of a trend toward probing to greater depths and in wider breadths than was evident in most of the studies preceding this period.

Special mention should be made of a clearly discernible advance in regard to reading and the other language arts. In the preceding decade we became strongly

concerned about the relationships of reading to the subjects of spelling, handwriting, vocabulary, and composition. During this decade we have moved on to a concern about aspects of the language arts which perhaps are less tangible than the subject matter areas but more inclusive in their application to the entire block of communication skills. Listening studies have increased by leaps and bounds. Some of the most recent dissertation topics have to do with semantic studies of reading content, multiple meanings, figures of speech in reading, and the linguistic approach to reading. Is it not an accomplishment to have moved on from subject interrelationships to relationships dealing with listening and the various aspects of linguistics?

The innovation in reading method which has loomed large on the horizon of late is the plan known as *individualized instruction*. The amount of attention given to this plan in this decade is comparable to that given to individual instruction in the nineteen-twenties. It probably is the most popular topic of discussion at present in educational magazines and often at teacher gatherings.

This individualized plan of the present is different from individual instruction which was popular in the twenties. The earlier plan was subject-matter oriented. Each child was given subject matter assignments divided into small increments of difficulty and he was permitted to progress as fast as he, personally, could complete each successive increment. The present plan is child-psychology oriented utilizing particularly Dr. Willard Olsen's theory of *seeking*, *self-selection*, and *pacing* in that the child seeks that which stimulates him, selects the book he desires to read, and proceeds at his own rate.

This plan has been used too recently for research reports to have crept into pub-

lished summaries of investigations. Most of the research on this topic at present falls into the unpublished category of theses, dissertations, or mimeographed reports of experiments carried on in certain school systems. An examination of the most recent sources listing dissertations completed or under way indicates that a quantity of research is now taking place in regard to this topic. Much of it will undoubtedly find its way into print in the near future.

Much more could be said about this period, but because of lack of time we now shall let the curtain fall over the last scene in fifty years of reading accomplishment. As we review the stirring events of the past, we have a right to feel cheered, grateful, proud. In looking back in retrospect we might wonder whether another fifty years could possibly bring about so many changes. This was the first period in which experimentation could be conducted scientifically. In consideration of the newly developed tools, our eagerness to learn, and studies conducted, we might reason that practically all facets of reading instruction have been explored and thus another era could never be so great as this.

If we do reason to this conclusion, we probably are wrong. We pioneered during this period in unexplored territory. We chopped down and cleared away the large virgin trees, but perhaps some of the humble shrubs or creeping vines or fragile mosses may hold even more significance for us than the strikingly obvious, first-sight timbers. But these more obscure growths won't yield their significance with the use of heavy saws and axes. We shall need fresh, piercing insights in choosing which of these to select for dislodgment, and then we shall need unique, delicate tools to pry them loose from their tangled environment and to test the potency of their effect.

What I am trying to say is that while our accomplishments have been very great, indeed, it may be that we have only penetrated the first layer, the troposphere, so to speak. Undoubtedly, brilliant new insights will be revealed, ingenious new techniques of experimentation will be evolved. Possibilities of such developments portend opportunities for unlimited achievement in the future.

Most assuredly, we shall not rest complacently in the glory of achievement during this past golden age. Rather shall we look forward to still greater accomplishments in reading. Let us push on and on with more and more vigor in the next decade and the next decade, and in all of the other decades ahead!

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Reading Instruction---

A Forward Look

During the past decade we have had in the United States much adverse criticism of reading methods and materials of instruction. The strictures have emphasized the inadequacy of repetitious and uninteresting presentations in textbooks and associated materials. Critics have stressed too the school's failure to make extensive use of films, filmstrips, and other aids. Some have cited the neglect of interest and motive, and have deplored an insufficient emphasis on phonics. Others have pointed to the unjustifiably high per cent of reading failures among children and to the lack of reading skill and interest on the part of many youth and adults today. Still others have cited the school's failure to treat reading as a thinking process. Undeniably there is ample reason for criticism, but the wholesale condemnation of our schools and the oversimplification of causes and cures are not only unjustifiable but deplorable.

A most insistent criticism has centered about the teaching of phonics, a topic which persists as a controversial issue. This criticism and a related one directed toward oral reading were in part justified by the neglect of phonics in some schools and by the abandonment of instruction in oral reading in others. Inconceivable as it may now appear, a group of educators at one time sponsored a nonoral reading program. Few schools adopted nonoral methods, and phonic instruction was usually offered, although the procedures and the extent of the emphasis varied widely. A

few critics attributed all or almost all poor reading to lack of phonic training and appeared to believe that the inauguration of particular "approaches" would provide a cure-all for every kind of reading failure or problem. This unfortunately is not the case.

A critical study of the literature will demonstrate the significance of a number of factors which contribute to poor reading, including unfavorable home conditions, lack of readiness, emotional disturbances, few and unsuitable materials, and so forth. Of course, lack of phonic ability is sometimes associated with poor reading, but so too are other factors in various combinations. This fact has been well established by studies of the past. At the present time, several investigations are yielding additional valuable insights concerning causation as attention is being given in extreme cases to the significance of brain damage and other factors inadequately explored in earlier studies. The role played by attitude and emotion is receiving renewed attention, and interest and motivation are also being investigated. The future will bring, we hope, a greatly reduced tendency to over-emphasize single items in studying causation. Moreover, we hope that the prevention of reading difficulties will receive greater attention in the coming years.

Phonics as a Cure-All

Some writers, however, continue to oversimplify the problem of effective reading instruction and attack with vehemence current educational practices. Perhaps the most exaggerated position was represented

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by Rudolph Flesch,¹ who stated: "Teach the child what each letter stands for and he can read." Moreover, Mr. Flesch recognized no limitation in the phonic approach—in teaching children to read or in remedial reading. Thus he stated: "The reading 'experts' of course will say that such a program of remedial reading is much too simple. What about Johnny's emotional troubles, what about such nervous habits as reversals, what about correcting his eye movements? But my answer to all of that is phonics. Phonics is the key"² (p. 116).

Mr. Flesch's book reiterates the statement that children "never really learn to read" in our schools (p. 18). Parents therefore must take over since "the teaching of reading is too important to be left to the educators" (Preface, p. IX). Two other writers have examined current problems a little more realistically, but have arrived at a similar conclusion concerning the role of phonics. It is stated on the book-jacket of *Reading Chaos and Cure* that the authors, Sybil Terman and C. C. Walcutt "advocate an application of the phonics method as opposed to the 'reading readiness' and 'word configuration' program now widely in use."³ In the book the following statements are found: "It is absurdly easy to teach a child to read with the proper method. Most of the children in America could be taught in a few weeks or months at the age of five. We shall tell you about various schools, now functioning, where a problem reader is virtually unheard of . . ." (Preface, p. IX).

Some critics, like Mr. Flesch, are apparently interested chiefly or solely, it appears,

in mere pronunciation of words. They have a very limited appreciation of reading as an intelligent, meaningful act by which thinking is promoted. Mr. Flesch makes this position abundantly clear in a story he tells:

I once surprised a native of Prague by reading aloud from a Czech newspaper. "Oh, you know Czech?" he asked. "No, I don't understand a word of it," I answered. "I can only read it." (p. 23)⁴

Later (p. 103), he describes a group of first grade children reading a newspaper and states: "But the fact is, and I testify to it, that those children read what was in the paper. They were perfectly able to pronounce words they had never seen before." In describing one child, he continues: "Needless to say, that six-year-old child hadn't the slightest idea of what the word meant. How could he?" Certainly pronunciation without understanding is not the aim of modern reading instruction. Nor is meaningless pronunciation thought of as reading. Reading is considered by some as a thinking process through which meaning is obtained from printed symbols. It is recognized that we do not get the meaning of a word—invariably or generally—from its spelling or from its pronunciation. To some of us, failure to obtain meaning is the most significant and unfortunate outcome of faulty or inadequate reading instruction. The child who is not encouraged to find appropriate meanings in various ways, such as by examining the context, is not being taught to read effectively. Rather, he is engaging merely in a parrot-like, routine exercise. It is recognized, too, that reading is both oral and silent; and that it is a two-way thinking process involving the individual's reaction to the symbol or statement and his interpretation of it in terms of his experience.

Some critics ignore and ridicule much

¹Rudolph Flesch, *Why Johnny Can't Read*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955, p. 3.

²Rudolph Flesch, *op. cit.*

³Quotes are from the book-jacket of *Reading Chaos and Cure* by Sybil Terman and Charles Child Walcutt. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1958.

⁴Rudolph Flesch, *op. cit.*

that experimentation has divulged in the past 20 or 30 years about child growth and development in relation to effective instruction in reading. For example, they categorically deny that there is such a thing as readiness for the various steps in the process of learning to read. They discount, too, the importance of the interest factor and of goals, purposes, and needs in the reading process.

Phonics and Interest

Criticisms assume various guises. A few advocates of simple procedures such as phonic instruction recognize the possibility that other factors also cause or contribute to poor reading. For example, Glenn McCracken has some reservations about the complete adequacy of phonic approaches. He states that interest should come first:

I do not agree with Dr. Flesch, however, that phonics constitutes the only important teaching technique necessary for producing superior readers. The maintenance of interest must always come first. If interest is low, success will be lower. Particularly among slower learners better results will accompany accelerated interest.⁵ (p. 156)

We should like to stress the fact that "accelerated interest" also will foster learning among average and rapid learners. To obtain interest, McCracken recommends heartily the presentation of materials in filmstrip form:

Another value associated with the textfilm approach is its facility for promoting class discussion. We have found this feature to be particularly pertinent to reading growth. Avid group conversation brings out many ideas. It stimulates interest and is helpful to pupils with good as well as weak mental abilities. When there is only one object of interest to look at in the room and when all children can see it equally well, conversation naturally ensues. It is common practice in these classes for the pupils guided by the teacher, to arrive at group decisions. This is learning in its finest form.⁶ (p. 171)

⁵Glenn McCracken, *The Right To Learn*. Chicago: Henry Regnery Company, 1959.

⁶Glenn McCracken, *op. cit.*

This group approach is coordinated with the use of a basal text, and outstanding results are reported.

The filmstrip approach undoubtedly has merits. It was used with remarkable success in the Army's program for functionally illiterate men during World War II. Concerning the problem of illiteracy, Terman and Walcutt state:

When the Army launched the great draft at the beginning of World War II, it discovered that between ten million (over twenty-five years old) and sixteen million (over twenty years old) Americans were unable to read up to fourth-grade level! By 1943 a million draftees had been rejected for illiteracy and three-quarters of a million had been accepted who read at or below a fourth-grade level. These millions could not all have come from Al Capp's mythical communities in the Southern mountains.⁷ (p. 19)

But it should be pointed out that analyses of the origin of these men *did* disclose a meager background of educational experience. The majority of the men *did* come from educationally deprived areas. Moreover, the poor reading was not attributable primarily to inadequacies in their education but instead to lack of education. Terman and Walcutt also fail to indicate that we developed and used an unusually efficient program of instruction based upon research in child development and education.

The Army Program for Functionally Illiterate Men

In order to satisfy the need for manpower in the Armed Forces, it was necessary to induct large numbers of illiterate and non-English-speaking men. Special Training Units were organized to give the academic training these men needed to become useful soldiers. In these units they participated in an educational program characterized by (a) definite objectives,

⁷Sybil Terman and Charles C. Walcutt, *op. cit.*

(b) high motive and interest, (c) careful study and proper grouping of individuals, (d) use of functional methods and materials in small classes, (e) wide application of visual aids, (f) hygienic conditions insuring a sense of security and general well-being, (g) provision for success from the start and for steady progress, and (h) the use of thoroughly trained, enthusiastic instructors.

Under the above conditions, it became possible for functionally illiterate and non-English-speaking men to acquire the reading skills needed in the Army in the short period of eight weeks. The writer of this article has described the steps in this accomplishment elsewhere and he has indicated some of the implications for the classroom teacher. He has outlined too his concept of a well-rounded reading program for the elementary school. Such a program is similarly characterized by (a) definite objectives, (b) provision for an orderly mastery of basic habits and skills, (c) application of appropriate techniques in appraising pupils' needs and in evaluating their growth, (d) the use of functional materials and methods of instruction, (e) the appropriate use of visual and auditory materials, and (f) the maintenance of hygienic conditions for learning under skilled teachers.⁸ In this program, individual and group instruction are judiciously combined, and reading is looked upon as a process which helps pupils meet their problems with success and understanding.

The Role of Interest

Again and again the writer has referred to the value of ascertaining and utilizing children's interests.⁹ In this emphasis, he has found support in research which pro-

vides convincing evidence that the curriculum should be developed in accord with the children's needs, interests, and problems if it is to have maximum significance and application. For years capable teachers have utilized children's interests as strong motives for learning. Committees engaged in curriculum development or reconstruction have also given recognition to the interests of boys and girls at different ages.

Specialists in reading too sometimes recommend that teachers utilize existing interests as a starting point in remedial endeavor. These workers are aware that some interests are transitory and that others are unworthy of extension. Therefore it has been suggested that teachers aim to modify old patterns, create new interests, and raise the level of pupils' tastes. In fact, the interests of boys and girls on coming to school may be thought of as constituting a unique opportunity for teachers. The interests of pupils at the time they leave a class or school may reflect the extent to which the teacher has accepted responsibility for directing pupil growth. Thus in a balanced reading program the study of children's interests becomes a primary consideration.

It is recognized also that learning to read with meaning increases the child's sense of power and opens the doors to new satisfactions and new sources of knowledge. Throughout all stages of the learning process, the child's satisfaction in real achievement and progress is a primary concern. This is the logical corollary to the foregoing emphasis on the interest factor. This dual approach guarantees the child the chance to follow worthwhile interests in a program characterized by systematic guidance and continuous evaluation. In such a program, successful achievement and 'disciplined growth are objectives.

In the Army program widespread use

⁸Paul Witty, *Reading in Modern Education*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1949, p. 10.

⁹Paul Witty, *op. cit.*

was made of films and filmstrips, as motivational and instructional devices. Following World War II, filmstrips were gradually introduced and employed successfully in certain phases of reading instruction. And films, too, were used with outstanding success in association with reading materials. For example, in an experiment conducted by James Fitzwater and the writer, films were employed to present simple narratives of strong appeal to second-grade children.¹⁰ After the children had seen each film and had listened to the commentary, they read the story in a film-reader. Then they developed their own story which was reproduced and heard by them *via* the magnetic sound track. This experiment, combining reading with listening and discussion, was demonstrably successful. Under these conditions, the acquisition of concepts and of skill in interpreting presentations was greatly enhanced. The film played an important role in this program; however, it was recognized that the use of the film was one factor only in effecting success. Similarly, the use of filmstrips has been found to foster the development of reading skills.

It is the hope of the writer that the future will bring increased use of films and filmstrips soundly articulated in a developmental program with full recognition of their motivational and instructional worth. The value of visual and auditory devices is unquestionably great; their use should not be looked upon as a panacea but rather as a way of facilitating learning when they are employed in appropriate context or used as a part of a balanced program of instruction. These statements apply also to the use of tachistoscopes, reading accelerators, and "teaching machines." Similarly

the use of "closed circuit TV" should not be looked upon as a cure-all device, nor regarded as a substitute for the teacher and as *the* way to solve the teacher shortage. The worth of each of these devices and approaches should be acknowledged and research should be undertaken to ascertain when and how they can be employed most advantageously.

The Role of Interest in a Developmental Program

Although many authorities in reading have recommended the use of interests in motivating instruction, relatively few studies of the interest factor have been made during the past fifteen or twenty years. During this period the emergence of TV has altered greatly the recreation of boys and girls and has deeply affected their interests. A recent comprehensive study reveals that the impact of TV and the mass media has altered children's interests greatly and has probably increased the need for guidance.¹¹ We believe that in the future, knowledge concerning the interests of pupils will be regarded as essential in planning the reading curriculum and in guiding each pupil. We hope the principle of interest will receive greater recognition not only in the elementary school but also in the high school and in the college.

The Role of Textbooks

There are, of course, various ways to teach children to read. Some teachers have succeeded through the conventional text-

¹⁰Paul Witty and James Fitzwater, "An Experiment with Films, Film Readers, and the Magnetic Sound Track Projector," *Elementary English*, April, 1952.

¹¹Paul Witty, *The Effects of the Mass Media*. Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, Washington, D. C. 1960. See also *A Study of the Interests of Children and Youth*, a cooperative research project between Northwestern University and the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, directed by Paul A. Witty, Northwestern University, 1960.

book approach; others have utilized an "individualized method"; some have employed films and film-readers with success; and still others have combined effectively group and individual approaches. It has become clear that various means may be used to establish and improve reading skills. Although reading skills may be achieved by different approaches, we should observe that there are different outcomes and relationships associated with each. Increasingly, educators are recommending a comprehensive program of instruction which stresses meaningful reaction and reading as thinking. Accordingly, greater recognition is being given to the effects of reading experience upon the pupil.¹² In efforts to provide a more valid evaluation than that reflected only by the acquisition of skill, teachers are asking questions such as: Do pupils read more widely? Are they more interested in and better able to read the materials of the subject fields? Have they obtained competency in using the library to satisfy interests and meet recurring needs? Have they developed, as a result of instruction, a strong interest in reading and independence in the selection of materials?

Recently we have had our attention directed to certain inadequacies of the instructional program that follows the typical textbook pattern to achieve the objectives implied by the foregoing questions. Criticisms have centered in some cases on the content of elementary school textbooks. Indeed, the first-grade reading program has become a subject for ridicule or scorn on the part of some critics, and the textbook has served as the special object of attack. The assumption that children may obtain maximum benefits from the presentation of

words in highly repetitious contexts woven about trivial situations is highly questionable. Certainly more meaningful materials closely related to children's current experiences are essential in a sound program of reading instruction.

The design for textbooks of the future (and the instructional guides and practice materials) will, we hope, provide for greater flexibility and make more ingenious provision for individual differences through the inclusion of richer and more varied content. It is hoped that greater attention will be given to concept building rather than to repetition of words in routine patterns. Reading in the content fields, critical reading, and reading to satisfy personal and social needs, deserve, and should receive far greater attention. There will be too, we hope, a much needed enrichment for superior pupils, as well as provision for wide use of materials to afford opportunities for pupils to apply reading skills in the subject fields. The elementary school of the future will, we hope, have a central library and a school librarian. The school librarian, like the teacher, will be thoroughly trained in child study. The librarian will encourage teachers and pupils in the use of the library aids, reference books, catalogs, indexes, and bibliographies, and will also keep teachers informed as to new books and visual and auditory materials as well. Through the foregoing steps, we shall see the diffusion of developmental practices throughout our schools.

A developmental reading program will recognize the value of continuous, systematic instruction, utilization of interests, fulfillment of developmental needs, and the articulation of reading experience with other types of worthwhile activity. The chief aim of this program will be to help pupils *become* skillful, self-reliant, and independent readers, who will continue to

¹²See Paul Witty (Chm.), *Development in and through Reading*, Sixtieth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961.

enrich their understandings and satisfactions throughout their lives by reading. At all stages, reading as a thinking process will be cultivated.

Individualized Reading

The above objectives will be conceded to be desirable. But how they are to be achieved is a matter of controversy.

With some of these in mind, one group of educators and teachers is advocating what is called "Individualized Reading." This term means many things to different persons who advocate the practice. Leland Jacobs, in a practical manner, discusses the topic and states:

In the first place, "individualized reading" is not a single method with predetermined steps in procedure to be followed. It is not possible to say that every teacher who would individualize guidance in reading must do this or that. It is not feasible or desirable to present a simple, single methodological formulation of what is right in "individualized reading" which every teacher shall follow.¹²

Certain writers have attempted to define "individualized reading" as a unique program and have emphasized its value as a method of instruction. We would agree with the persons who recommend "individualized reading" if the following conditions should be accepted as a *part* of (not a subordinate to, or an adjunct of) the basal program, but not as *the* program. We see little need for calling the program "individualized" and designating this approach as "the method" to be followed. May Lazar in a generally admirable discussion states: "Individualized Reading is not subordinate to or an adjunct of the basic reading program." However, she adds "*it is the basic*

program."¹⁴ Why can't we recognize that neither group nor individual practices alone constitute the reading program? Why can't we grant the importance of both approaches and cease to think of them as mutually exclusive practices? Isn't it possible to find a way by which agreement can be reached so as to utilize the undeniably desirable features of both approaches in a program which encourages thinking, independent choice, and self-directed behavior? Admittedly, this will necessitate the abandonment of some practices associated with the typical textbook pattern of instruction; it will necessitate too the disavowal of belief in a single pattern to be followed by all children in a class. Adaptations, revisions, and extensions of current practices will be necessary.

Characteristics of Individualized Reading

Various persons have described the distinguishing features of "individualized reading." For example, Dorothy M. Dietrich emphasized some of the characteristics of individualized reading as follows:

Presently, numerous articles have been written concerning the individualized approach to the teaching of reading. Although these reports vary as to the organization and methods used, they do agree that the elements necessary for conducting an individualized reading program include: (1) a large classroom library made up of basal and supplementary readers, books brought from home by the children and/or materials borrowed from public or school libraries; (2) a free choice by the children of the reading materials depending upon interest and/or readability; (3) a follow-up activity which may be a series of questions devised by the teacher pertaining to each book, a general report of the book read, a visual presentation of

¹²Leland Jacobs, "Individualized Reading Is Not a Thing," in *Individualizing Reading Practices*, edited by Alice Miel, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958.

¹⁴May Lazar, "Individualized Reading: A Program of Seeking, Self-selection, and Pacing," Chapter 15 in Jeannette Veatch, *Individualizing Your Reading Program*, New York: Putnam, 1959, p. 196.

the highlights of the book to the class as a whole, or a discussion with other children concerning characters, plots, etc.; (4) a conference between each child and the classroom teacher, the number of conferences depending upon class size and individual need; (5) a reading skill program which may be taught to the class as a whole, or in some cases, on a flexible small group basis depending upon the emerging needs of the individual.¹⁵

May Lazar and two members of the Bureau staff, after visiting about 50 classes and making a survey of current practices in the schools where individualized reading had been started, found that "although no two teachers worked exactly in the same way even in the same school, there emerged a general picture of their procedures."

Teachers generally gave some directions to the class as a whole. A time was given when all children read independently from self-selected material. Teachers held sessions or "conferences" with individual children or with a small group. Teachers kept records of children's abilities, needs, and interests.

The children kept simple records and reports of their readings.

There was class or group discussion or sharing of books read.¹⁶

It will be found that most teachers who have tried the individualized approach are enthusiastic about its results.¹⁷ Some schools have reported that a combination of the individualized approach with the traditional basic method has proved more satisfactory. Several writers have concluded that the most desirable procedure is to adapt the best features of individualized

and of group instruction to the reading situation and the needs existing in different schools.

Both strengths and weaknesses in the individualized method have been noted. H. W. Sartain reports the results of an experiment "to determine whether second-grade groups would make greater progress in reading skills when taught for three months by the method of individualized self-selection or when taught for an equivalent period by the method of ability grouping using basic readers plus a variety of supplementary books."¹⁸ He drew the following conclusions from his study:

In summary, because this study and others that have been carefully controlled show that the individualized method does not produce better reading gains than a strong basal program, there is no reason to forfeit the advantages of a well-planned basic system. Instead the benefits of the individual conferences should be obtained by their addition to the basic reader plan.¹⁹

Sartain notes some strengths and weaknesses of the individualized method as listed by the teachers who participated in the study:

Strengths of the Method of Individualized Self-selection

1. Individual conferences provide a valuable personal relationship with pupils.
2. Children are motivated to read more extensively.
3. There is a keen interest in sharing.
4. There is a strong motivation for individual improvement.
5. Top readers are especially responsive.

Weaknesses of the Individual Method

1. All slow pupils and others who cannot work well independently become restless and tend to waste time.
2. There is no opportunity to teach new vocabulary and concepts needed before reading.
3. It is impossible to provide a systematic program of word attack skills.

¹⁵Dorothy M. Dietrich, *Reading in a Changing Society*, edited by J. Allen Figurel, Part V, "Experimental Procedures Significant for Future Trends in Reading Instruction; 9. For Reading Supervisors; a, In Methods and Materials," International Reading Association Conference Proceedings; Volume 4, 1959, p. 233. Published and distributed by Scholastic Magazines, 33 West 42nd St. New York 36.

¹⁶May Lazar, in *Individualizing Your Reading Program*, op. cit., p. 198.

¹⁷For the individual approach, see the essays in Jeannette Veatch's *Individualizing Your Reading Program*. New York: Putnam, 1959.

¹⁸Harry W. Sartain, "The Roseville Experiment with Individualized Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 13, April, 1960, p. 277.

¹⁹Harry W. Sartain, op. cit., p. 281.

4. It is exceedingly hard to identify pupils' difficulties in short infrequent conferences.
5. There is some doubt about the permanence of skills taught so briefly.
6. The method is inefficient because of the time required to teach skills to individuals instead of teaching groups who are progressing at a similar rate.
7. The conscientious teacher becomes frustrated in attempting to provide individual conferences for all pupils who need them each day.²⁰

Eleanor Johnson, too, in evaluating the individualized reading approach, lists the following values and limitations:

Values. Individualized reading allows a pupil to read at his own level without being frustrated by those of differing reading ability. A child can follow his own reading interests. Tensions are reduced. Pupils enjoy the personal attention they receive in teacher-pupil conferences.

Limitations. The individualized approach to basic reading has at least four important limitations. (1) *Readiness.* For maximum achievement, every child on every level needs readiness for reading any story. Individualized reading appears to ignore the principle of readiness. (2) *Skills.* Reading skills are many and complex. A child does not learn them merely by reading. Leaving them to individual teaching can open a Pandora's Box of reading deficiencies. (3) *Purpose.* Reading is a thinking process. Skill in thinking needs more guidance than can be given in a brief conference. (4) *Efficiency.* It is a waste of time to do individually what can be done more efficiently on a group basis.²¹

May Lazar also points to some values of and some items of concern about the individualized approach.

This approach: Really provides for individual differences; satisfies children's needs of seeking, self-selection, and pacing.

Better integration with other language arts—more creative thinking and critical reading; wide increase in vocabulary; motivation for listening, writing, and spelling; strong desire to communicate ideas.

Decided carry-over to homes; more self-initiated reading; extensive use of public library.

Social interaction—good relationships within the class; acceptance of one another's contributions; "caste system" is broken down.

The child has a better sense of his own worth

—self-understanding; he is a participating member of the group;—he relies on his own self-management; he feels that he is a real part of the program and is learning from his own efforts and not always because of what the teacher wants him to learn.

Child actually reads; learns to cherish and handle books; respects authors and their ideas.²²

May Lazar mentions some problems that were encountered.

The teachers and principals expressed concern about:

Materials—there are not enough books as yet to fit the needs of the classes; administration and organization of the books are serious factors.

Children's ability in selection—some children may need special guidance that the teacher does not foresee.

Teacher attitude—fear of something new.

Teacher effectiveness—would all teachers be able to handle this approach?

Supervision—flexibility makes procedures more difficult to assess. If the supervisor understands and has the same objectives, evaluation will not be too difficult. He may, however, have to employ evaluative measures somewhat different in nature from the existing ones.

Parents' reactions—skepticism about changing procedures.²³

Although some of the writers on individualized reading do not recommend dropping basal textbooks, Sartain states that "most of the enthusiasts recommend dropping the basal reader program entirely, but several teachers have found that a combination of basal and individualized reading is more desirable.²⁴ We have noted some examples of effective combination of group and individual approaches. Thus, Maida Wood Sharpe describes an ingenious program in which the teacher worked "one or two days each week in the basal readers for systematic study and instruction in basic reader skills," and used on the other days an individualized reading program.²⁵ Also

²⁰May Lazar, *op. cit.*, pp. 200-201.

²¹May Lazar, *op. cit.*, pp. 199-200.

²²Harry W. Sartain, "A Bibliography on Individualized Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, 13, April, 1960, p. 262.

²³Maida Wood Sharpe, "An Individualized Reading Program," *Elementary English*, 35, Dec. 1958, pp. 507-512.

²⁴Harry W. Sartain, *op. cit.*, p. 279.

²⁵Eleanor M. Johnson, "The Trend Toward Individualized Reading," *My Weekly Reader*, Vol. XXIX, May 2-6, 1960. Teacher's Edition 2. Section one of two sections.

Louise G. Carson reports that in her school district the teachers were "not yet convinced that a completely individualized program" was "necessary or advisable," but that they were interested in the idea. She thought that were she to embark on such a program, she "would retain reading groups of basal reading" and "would individualize all supplementary reading."²⁶ This suggestion has been made by a number of writers including John J. DeBoer.²⁷

Another distinct innovation is suggested by Margaret Kirby who described a program in which reading skills are presented and demonstrated to the children. For three days each week the children work independently and on the other two days they work together. An important feature of this program is in the arrangement for books. Six to eight books of like levels are placed on shelves covered with varying colors of shelf paper. Kirby thus describes the use of these books by the children:

Each child is told to choose the book he wants from a shelf of a particular color. No book may be put back on the shelf until checked by the teacher. A move to another shelf is determined by the child's own progress. When a new shelf is started, the basic book is required reading. In this way every child is getting the basic vocabulary.

If a child asks for a book from another shelf, I let him try. In most cases the child has come back and asked to go back to the shelf he had originally been assigned. This gives the child a chance to make an evaluation of his own ability. One child read a book much below his reading level. Together teacher and child evaluated this reading experience and decided that sometimes a book is worthwhile because of the enjoyment it gives or the information it presents. Another child wanted a book from a more advanced level and proved that she was capable of handling this level because she was willing to put forth the extra effort it required.

During the independent reading period I

work with one child at a time at my desk. Theoretically each child has one ten-minute conference each week.²⁸

Esther Dornhoefer,²⁹ after following for several weeks an individualized program with her children, has "some problems" to solve:

. . . selective reading also involved some problems. Many of the children were in primers and first readers. The stories were longer and it took more time to read. It was now impossible to read with each child every day. I had tried taking half the group one day and the other half the next day but the children didn't like it. "I didn't get to read today" was the complaint. Again I thought, "Oh joy, they really do like to read. This is what I have been working for."

By this time, of course, I was almost sold on individualized reading except for one thing. There is a certain sense of pleasure in sharing a story with your classmates—in other words, group reading. But if I added group reading to our individual reading the day would be heavily overbalanced with language arts. And yet—the next teacher might prefer to use group reading and it seemed only fair that the children should have the experience. . . .

The longer I teach the more I feel that there isn't any *one* approach—rather a combination that ultimately shapes the results. This past year has been one of experiment, mistakes, and problems. But next year with some changes, I shall use a variety of approaches—group reading, the newspaper, the reading table with the freedom of choosing books to take home—the backbone will be individualized reading.

We would most certainly concur with the conclusion of this excellent teacher in recognizing that there isn't any *one* approach to efficient instruction. Moreover, we believe that we should continue exploration to determine which combination of approaches is most effective. We admire greatly the courageous efforts of teachers to solve this problem and we agree too with the following statements of John Mar-

²⁶Louise G. Carson, "Moving Toward Individualization—A Second Grade Program," *Elementary English*, 34, October, 1957.

²⁷John J. DeBoer, Address given at Northwestern University, Summer Reading Conference, 1959.

²⁸Margaret Kirby, "Tete-a-tete Lessons Develop Independent Readers," *Elementary English*, 34, May 1957, pp. 302-3.

²⁹Ruth Rowe and Esther Dornhoefer, "Individualized Reading," *Childhood Education*, 34, Nov. 1957, pp. 118-122.

catante about possible reactions to the *Individualized Reading Program*:

... One teacher may attribute panacea-like powers to it, while another will maintain that it is a waste of time. Both these extremists may stand in error.³⁰

This is precisely the point we attempted to make in an article published in *Elementary English*, October, 1959. In this article, we tried to give a rather representative summary of investigations and to evaluate the results. This summary was criticized as incomplete (which it was intentionally). Since that time, additional summaries have been published, such as that by Harry W. Sartain who concludes that because his own study and others "that have been carefully controlled" show that the "individualized method does not produce better reading gains than a strong basal program, there is no reason to forfeit the advantages of a well-planned basic system."³¹ However, he does recognize some of the strengths of the individualized approach. Several other accounts demonstrate clearly some of the distinct values of individualized reading. One of these, by Helen F. Darrow and Virgil M. Howes, gives examples of effective reading instruction.³² In the preface, the authors state that "The individualized method is no panacea, no quick trick to solve all reading problems," and that "At best it is a means to achieve the major goals of reading instruction." We were most impressed in this account with the care and success of the teachers in studying the interests of boys and girls and in associating interests with reading materials. Called by either name (individual-

ized or developmental) this is an admirable practice. We were greatly pleased too with the consideration of skills and the various methods used to establish them. Perhaps the greatest strength of this admirable pamphlet lies in the ingenious provisions for recording development and evaluating growth through reading. The title of this booklet is *Approaches to Individualized Reading*. We believe that this monograph could just as appropriately be entitled *Approaches to Developmental Reading* as we have described the latter.

It seems to us that it is idle to debate whether individualized or group approaches are preferable. Common sense as well as some of the studies would support the use of both approaches in effective combinations and not with one subservient to the other. In doing this, we should, of course, recognize the need for the abandonment of the routine *basal* approach in using a single reading series; but this would not rule out systematic instruction in which reading textbooks in various combinations are used as needed.

Ruth Strang and Donald M. Lindquist also recognize this point of view in their interpretation of individualized reading. They state:

Individualized reading is an essential part of the developmental reading program. Children should be guided in selecting books of interest to them and at their reading level, and teachers should give them individualized help with their chosen reading. p. 86.³³

They point out that there are many ways of individualizing reading. "The most common method of individualization on all educational levels is subgrouping within a class." p. 14. Other procedures are discussed and are followed by this conclusion; "These and other methods of individualiza-

³⁰John Marcantante, (Junior High School 126, Queens), "The Programmatic Fallacy and Individualized Reading," *High Points*, May, 1960, pp. 47-50.

³¹Harry W. Sartain, *op. cit.*

³²Helen F. Darrow and Virgil M. Howes, *Approaches to Individualized Reading*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts Inc., 1960.

³³Ruth Strang and Donald M. Lindquist. *The Administrator and the Improvement of Reading*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1960.

tion do not constitute the whole reading program. They are features of a classroom procedure that provide for both group and individual instruction and practice." p. 16.

Need for More Definitive Research

It is difficult indeed to appraise scientifically a "method" which is interpreted in so many and such varied ways as is "individualized reading." And, we should hasten to add that developmental reading has many interpretations, one of which is found in this article. Similarly, instruction using the *basal* materials is difficult to evaluate since many plans are employed; in some, multiple texts and varied practice materials are used in different combinations; in others a basal reader and its accompanying materials are meticulously followed. Perhaps it would be well to admit these facts and abandon trying to ascertain the value of "individual" versus the textbook approach. Instead we might try to agree upon common objectives and seek to evaluate some aspects of both approaches, such as when and how pacing may be utilized successfully, when and how self-selection may be engendered and practiced most effectively, when and how skills under-emphasized in most textbooks can be most advantageously developed, and under what conditions films and filmstrips can be most efficiently utilized. The role of self-teaching devices should also be explored.

In summarizing the results and implications of studies and experiments to discover ways of improving reading achievement through the means of program organization, methods and materials, Loft-house comments thus on some of the pitfalls to be avoided in making comparisons:

Individuals who undertake experimentation should try to control or at least take account

of the numerous factors which might bias their findings. Pitfalls to avoid include comparing results achieved by teachers who are of unequal ability, experience, preparation, or motivation or who used classes of different socio-economic backgrounds. The amount of time spent and the emphasis placed on the subject being taught should be equivalent when plans of organization or procedures are being evaluated.²⁴

And Clare B. Routley makes the following recommendations for reading practices and materials for the future:

Teachers in the future must pay more attention to individualized reading programs. Grouping must be planned to meet the needs of all pupils. Even gifted children may be retarded readers. Other gifted children may be reading below their potentialities. . . .

To meet the unprecedented demands in reading which the changing characteristics of our age will demand, there must be more research, more experimentation, more testing and increased use of clinical procedures. The best of the New Castle Plan, the Joplin Plan, and all other plans must be made available for teachers in order that a sound developmental program may be followed.²⁵

With the foregoing statements we are in full agreement. Moreover, we find in the following conclusions of John DeBoer and Martha Dallman an interesting commentary on needs in today's schools.

While it is true that some children learn to read well without any systematic instruction, acquiring all needed skills through abundant and highly motivated reading, the vast majority of children need instructional assistance if they are to learn to read at their best. The regularly scheduled reading period and the basal reader

²⁴Yvonne M. Lofthouse (Mercy College, Detroit, Michigan), *Reading in a Changing Society*, edited by J. Allen Figurel. International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 4, 1959. Published and distributed by Scholastic Magazines, 33 West 42nd Street, New York 36. Part V, Experimental Procedures Significant for Future Trends in Reading Instruction; 1. In Primary Grades; a, In Methods and Materials, p. 177.

²⁵Clare B. Routley, (Supervisor of Professional Development, Ontario). *Reading in a Changing Society*, edited by J. Allen Figurel. *op. cit.* Part IV, Implications of a Changing Society for Future Practices in Reading Instruction, 9, For Reading Supervisors; a, In Practices and Materials, pp. 144-145.

will continue to be indispensable for most teachers and with most children if essential skills are to be developed. Extensive reading may be sufficient for bright children under the guidance of skillful teachers, and it is likely to produce rapid readers, readers who readily grasp the total meaning of a passage. For most pupils, however, it should be supplemented with intensive instruction for the continuous development of increasingly difficult skills such as word recognition, comprehension of sentence meaning, and following directions.

DeBoer and Dallman make the following suggestions for modifying conventional textbook practice:

Certain general cautions should be observed in the planning of a basal reading program. These cautions grow out of facts and principles developed earlier in this book. For example, reliance should not be placed upon a single basal reader for the whole class; indeed it should not be placed upon an entire single series. In any given class, basal readers designed for many levels of reading ability and containing many different kinds of material should be provided. Basal readers should not be labeled according to grade level of difficulty, although the publisher's estimate of difficulty level may be indicated by some code device. All basal readers should be amply supplemented with general reading materials on many subjects and representing many levels of reading difficulty.³⁷

A provocative point of view is also expressed by Russell G. Stauffer who states:

It is recommended, then, that a modified basic reader approach be used. To do this effectively one must, first, drop the notion that a basic reader program in and of itself is final and sacred. It is not. Second, one must drop the notion that time can be equated with equality. Not every group must be met every day for the same length of time. Third, the idea that a basic book recommended for a grade level must be "finished" by all pupils in a grade before they can be promoted must be discarded. Fourth, teaching reading as a *memoriter* process by presenting new words in advance of the reading and then having pupils tell back the story must be stopped. If reading is taught as a thinking process, even short basic-reader stories will be read with enthusiasm. . . . Sixth, effective skills of word attack must be taught. Basic reading

books do not provide for such skill training; neither do trade books.³⁷

Following is an illustration, again from Darrow and Howes, of the way textbooks and group instruction have been combined effectively.

On certain days, instead of sharing individual reading, children worked on skills in small groups. For practicing certain skills, the children worked from a common reader; for others, they used workbooks, their individual reading books, and other aids. All kinds of skills were practiced: speed, word meanings, dictionary skills, word analyses, use of indexes and tables of content, and others. The teacher checked frequently with the county course of study in reading and in other books so as to keep in mind the range of reading skills.³⁸

It will be granted that some widely followed basal programs are inflexible. Other programs and textbooks are more flexible. It is clear that we need new designs for texts and related materials. When these are developed, they will, we hope, stress reading as a thinking process to a greater extent. In the meantime, it is desirable to follow a flexible program using the best texts available and combining group with individualized reading, as DeBoer and Dallman have suggested. Stauffer, too, makes a distinctive recommendation:

. . . the reading program should be divided so as to allow about half of the time for each approach—a basic reader program and an individualized program. This might be done by using the group approach with basic readers for about a week or two, and then the individualized or self-selection approach for a similar period of time. When a pupil is free to select day after day for two or three weeks, he is almost forced to examine his interests and decide more carefully about what he wants to do.³⁹

The suggestions given above seem plausible. It would be desirable for teach-

³⁷John DeBoer and Martha Dallman, *The Teaching of Reading*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1960.

³⁸Russell G. Stauffer, "Individualized and Group Directed Reading Instruction," *Elementary English*, October, 1960, Vol. XXXVII, p. 381.

³⁹Helen F. Darrow and Virgil M. Howes, *Approaches to Individualized Reading*, op. cit., p. 16.

⁴⁰Russell G. Stauffer, "Individualized and Group Directed Reading Instruction," op. cit., p. 381.

ers to try out these approaches. What outcomes will they yield? Similarly we might through cooperative efforts seek answers to other questions, such as:

- a. How can children be best prepared for self-selection and for successful silent reading experiences? What is the role of readiness? How can phonic skills be best acquired?
- b. What combination of individual and of group endeavor is most advantageous in various situations?
- c. What provision should be made for "conferences" between pupil and teacher in classes of various sizes? How often should conferences be held in various situations?
- d. How can we use films, filmstrips, and film readers more effectively to promote pleasure and success in reading?
- e. What provision should be made for the acquisition of skill in oral reading? In storytelling? In creative endeavor of various kinds?
- f. How can individual and group interests be best ascertained? And how can individual and group interests be best provided for?
- g. What is a desirable combination of group and individual practices to follow in the subject areas? How can such practices be encouraged and evaluated?
- h. What is the best combination of group and individual practice to follow in guiding exceptional children? In encouraging creativity?
- i. In what ways can we encourage reading as a thinking process? How can we foster critical reading most effectively?

One of the values of individualized reading insufficiently stressed, is the opportunity it offers the creative child or the gifted pupil to explore his interests and

to develop his background through reading. The principle of self-selection has special relevance here since its use may permit the expression or the development of gifts.

The above questions and others can be answered best through various types of classroom endeavor accompanied by research. They are not questions at present to be answered primarily by debate. Certainly we have few dependable answers at present to most of these questions. New and bold departures are necessary if we are to make the most of our present opportunities. During World War II, we demonstrated the value of films and filmstrips in teaching reading. And after World War II, the value of films associated with film readers was shown in the development of habits and skills in reading. Schools have been remiss by neglecting to incorporate such approaches in the teaching of reading. We should recognize, however, that some teachers are at present courageously making efforts to depart greatly from established practice and to test new approaches. With the unparalleled opportunities today for the use of new approaches and devices to foster enjoyment and success in reading, it is hoped that in the future we shall extend these efforts greatly and shall not be forced to acknowledge our neglect with its far-reaching consequences.

From Saturday Review, January 21, 1961:

"WHILE SCHOOL KEEPS"

"English teaching in the schools and colleges is subjected to critical appraisal again this month in 'The National Interest and the Teaching of English,' a publication of the National Council of Teachers of English. Subtitled 'A Report on the Status of the Profession,' it is not only a report to the profession, but in many respects a report to the nation."

Stimulating Creativity in Children and Youth

Creativity in language implies originality, individuality, and an absence of stereotyped thinking; for, the word stereotype connotes rigidity, a fixed form, specific boundaries, an inelasticity or no opportunity for expansion. On the other hand, creativity implies a freshness of vision, a versatility, and a novel viewpoint. This novelty, however, must not be something which is original in a trivial, freakish way. When one thinks of creativity, he gets a feeling of exaltation, one of great heights, a sense of grasping for that which is beyond his reach. The Spanish poet, Juan Ramón Jiménez expressed this feeling in a poem, "New Leaves," in which "golden children were climbing silver poplars to the sky" and "staring at the sky in wonder with eyes like pure dreams." (12:33)

Silver poplars and laughing youth might symbolize a sense of emotionality or release as many people feel that creativity implies merely freedom and spontaneity. But to me, creativity means more than this exuberance, for it needs skills and standards. For example, those "golden children" could not have climbed the "silver poplars" without developing a coordinated musculature of body and a confidence in climbing ability. Too often we fail to consider the relationship between a child and his poem or painting. A poem is not born in a minute; a picture is not daubed in an instant; for behind the childish vision of a cow in a pasture or beyond the little jingle stretch many years of muscular experimentation, numerous hours of observation, and count-

less time in the growth of linguistic facility. A child cannot paint a cow unless he knows one. He must have had "encounter" with a cow to use the term indicated by Rollo May. (16) May makes a clear distinction between a pseudo-form of creativity, the kind that is a superficial experience, a "frosting" to life, as opposed to creativity of a high quality. He defines creativity as "a process of *bringing something new into birth*." (16:263) It is the process of "*making or bringing into being*." Creativity at its zenith is a "sublime union of *form and order with passion and vitality*." (16:271)

A second aspect of the creative process consists of man's encounter with his environment, not the whole world or complete environment, but objects around the creator which encircle him; for creativity is a process of doing, an interrelationship of a person and his world. There is a difference between the Oriental and Western viewpoint of creativity. The Oriental person frequently feels at ease with the world, looks around him with a contemplative feeling, and senses a personal relationship. The Westerner, on the other hand, feels antagonistic toward his environment, for it seems to be a peak to scale or the earth to conquer. D. T. Suzuki expressed this Oriental viewpoint when he said man "thinks like the showers coming down from the sky; he thinks like the waves rolling on the ocean; he thinks like the stars illuminating the mighty heavens; he thinks like the green foliage shooting forth in the relaxing spring breeze." (11:11)

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Allport illustrates a philosophy of continuous growth and change in the creativity of a pupil. According to Allport modern psychological principles of personality development are concerned with an individual person and his personal "outreachings downward, upward, inward, and outward." (2:5) His conception of creativity is a dynamic one; the person is motivated from within, not externally. He is self-active and his personality is not a finished product; it is a transitive one as it is continually undergoing change. (2:19)

Creativity, then, is not the sudden emergence of a poem, or a dance; it is a process which is ever renewing. As one creates a poem or a picture, he is also changing. Man is continually becoming more creative. Being creative is an active process. This same viewpoint is expressed in a stimulating book by Gardner Murphy entitled *Human Potentialities*. (19) Creativity is not merely extemporaneous outpourings. It is dependent upon the development of skills, a semblance of form, a feeling that things are related. To use the words of Rollo May again, "creativity . . . is the encounter of the intensively conscious human being with his world." (16:276)

Time will not permit a discussion of numerous factors stimulating the immediate creative act in a classroom. Paul Witty has described these dynamic forces in his article, "Creative Classroom Climates." (21) In this limited space, it seems wise to indicate five factors which influence creativity. These are: (1) experience, (2) the creative moment, (3) the creative occasion, (4) the miracle of words, and (5) the interrelationship of knowledge.

Most of us realize that experience is significant; however, experiencing is not enough, for it is the *quality* of that experience which is important. For example, one

can travel to the magnificent Canadian Rockies and spend most of his time at a card table; or he can really experience the immense grandeur of jagged peaks and glacial wonder. How can one *experience* a glacier in a book? When one senses immense expanses of crawling rivers of ice-like frozen marshmallows with bits of chocolate, steel blue crevices dripping milky-white glacial streams smothering the gills of fish with glacial silt—this is encountering glaciers. Too many of us wear blinders such as old Dobbin wore in the horse and buggy era. So experience must be vital, it must be real, it must be significant.

A second aspect, the *teachable moment*, must also be significant. The teachable moment implies a mood, a feeling, a desire, an out-reaching. The creative moment is at the time when an experience happens, or when a vicarious experience is truly sensed. I believe it was Dora Smith who said: "The time to write about a robin is the time when you see one hopping on the lawn." So teachers need to consider the teachable moment as a cue toward stimulating creativity. Children can write about catastrophes when they are overcome with information about a gigantic earthquake in Yellowstone Park, a tidal wave in China, or a flood of the Mississippi River.

A third factor is the *creative occasion*. A teachable moment might imply that the pupils are prepared to write social letters through much readiness activity by the teacher and the class; however, a *creative occasion* indicates that there is really some situation that stimulates them to write those letters. Teachers sponsoring a high school or college yearbook know the importance of creative occasions. Years ago, most of the children in an eighth grade class in the Ramona Elementary School wrote poems about the mountains because

their yearbook theme was "Mountain Heights." So one pupil wrote "The Golden Chariot."

Bits of pink and blue are lazily
drifting by
While the silver-lined clouds of
rare beauty
Are floating across the sky.
Then suddenly the sky is aflame
With brilliant red and gold,
As the sun is riding to the west
In a chariot of riches old.

—Georgia M. Kearney

This, then, was an occasion, a reason to write a poem about stately mountains, golden sunshine, and a flaming sky.

A fourth factor in creative writing is the miracle of words. There are universes of words almost as miraculous as the stellar universe. Much informative source material is available in books such as Ernst's *English Roots and How They Grew* (6) or Wilfred Funk's book, *Word Origins and Their Romantic Stories* (7). Some books on vocabulary building are ones such as *It's Easy to Increase Your Vocabulary* by Morris (18) or *Six Weeks to Word Power* by Wilfred Funk (8). Authors also frequently discuss the significance of metaphor in our speech. Weller Embler wrote a stimulating article, "Metaphor in Everyday Speech," (5) illustrating metaphorical interpretations of simple words such as *high* and *low* or *up* and *down*. For example, the employee speaks of *moving up* to a *higher* position, or a person says he is *coming down* in the world, or *falling down* in the estimation of others, or again a person may be *down* and *out*. Then there are diplomatic talks which *break down* and human beings have nervous *breakdowns*. Or a boy is at the *bottom* of the heap or you are *low* in mind (5:323-324). The miracle of words is also discovered through the use of various dictionaries of

synonyms and antonyms such as Roget's *Theasaurus of Antonyms and Synonyms* (15) or Devlin's *Dictionary of Synonyms and Antonyms* (4). Of course, collegiate dictionaries and the unabridged dictionary are vast reservoirs of words.

A fifth aspect of creativity is that of seeing relationships between things, between people, and between the creator and his environment. This ability to see relationships, the art of teaching related thinking, is perhaps one of the most neglected phases of our English curriculum. For example, a poet tastes some grenadine liqueur. Therefore, the poet speaks of the grenadine-eyed bird. This is the quality of seeing relationships or recognizing resemblances. Or again, think of the timberline, the area on mountain peaks where green growth diminishes and barren rocks emerge. A style designer relates this timberline color to new fall materials and advertises timberline green suits and dresses. Children can learn to see relationships if they are encouraged to think in a related manner. For example, one day bronze and maroon-colored snapdragons were passed around to pupils in a third grade class. These children were asked to think of resemblances, to compare snapdragons to other things in their experience. Albert wrote:

They seem to be angry. They are
like a scratching cat, or a very mad
fox.

Remembering, then, that creativity is possible and that we should strive for more magic words, creative moments, and creative occasions, let us consider three creative stimuli: (1) an experience in Haiku verse writing, (2) social letters, and (3) aural-audience poetry interpretations.

Most of us are familiar with an Oriental bit of verse, the Haiku. It is a verse style which has a syllabic pattern of five-seven-

five syllables. Space will not permit me to offer a complete description of this pattern, but you may discover Haiku through reading a volume, *Haiku Verse* published by the Peter Pauper Press, or one by Henderson (10) or Donald Keene (13). Most of us need much experience before we can appreciate Haiku because it seems to be so simple; yet the symbolism behind true Japanese verse is beautiful. Writing this type of verse is an aid toward teaching metaphorical thinking. For example, Doris, a fifth grade child wrote:

INKY NIGHT

Pansy purple hue
Like a sunset at night time
In dark purple ink.

Kenny, a seventh grade child said:

NOISY BIRDS

Screeching parakeets
Preening feathers in a cage . . .
Quiet; food arrives.

A second form of creative experience is that of letter writing. The writing of social letters can be dull or unexciting or interesting and creative. An article entitled, "Assignment-Social Letters," by Betty Frye Leach in a recent issue of the *English Journal* includes numerous imaginative situations which can be used to make social letter writing more original and vital (14:336-337).

Two years ago, a fifth grade class taught by Mrs. Velma Dowling in Rodeo, studied a unit entitled: "Man's Quest of the Unknown." As part of this study, the class became interested in the Navy and its explorations at Antarctica. Pupils read Jules Verne's book *Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea* and were interested in learning that the atomic-powered *Nautilus* was named after the submarine in the story.

These pupils wrote to Commander Anderson and asked if he would permit the children to be mascots of the *Nautilus*. They were accepted as mascots and each child received a personal reply to his letter. An official roster of the crew was also given to the children. One day, a child read a newspaper article about the death of a crew member aboard the *Nautilus* and wrote a letter of condolence to his family.

A seventh grade class taught by this same teacher was studying about glass blowing in the Middle Ages. Children become interested in glass making. They were also studying about sea life and messages which were formerly floated out to sea in glass bottles. These seventh grade boys and girls became quite excited about the idea of writing letters and floating them out to sea in bottles.

Mr. Kelly taught a unit about weather during a summer session class held at the Whittier Demonstration School in Berkeley. The class launched a real weather balloon as part of a science unit. Each child enthusiastically wrote a letter to put into that weather balloon! Even now these children are waiting and hoping to hear that someone finds their letters and answers them.

A third creative experience is called an aural interpretation of poetry and was first explained to me by the poet, George Abbe. The technique is somewhat as follows: (1) a teacher writes a poem on the chalkboard and reads it with no personal interpretation, (2) pupils are asked to interpret the meaning of the poem, (3) as the authors write, the teacher reads the phrases of the poem orally several times and the pupils get a feeling for the aural rhythm of the poem, (4) the interpretations are written with the rhythm of the poet's words ringing in the ears of the auditors. In writing these "author-audience

commentaries" some authors unconsciously utilize some of the poet's phraseology; however, the interpretation is truly original (1:4). This technique can best be illustrated by reading one interpretation of an Abbe poem entitled, "Horizon Thong" (1).

CHANGE

By RICKEY RODRIGUES (Grade Six)

One night, a young philosopher walked lonely to a mountain split by erosion. He sat down on green grass, but in his mind he could see snow and barren country. Then he looked into the sky and imagined a huge thong holding the sky and water together . . . then crystal blossoms of thoughts. He remembered when he was a child. He remembered a snowy, winter day on the same spot, and he saw his father taking his snow shoes off his shoulder. Then, he saw his brother running with the pain of cold and hunger. The father started after him. Then the brother disappeared into the trees and they had a struggle in the brush like the changing of seasons. A mammal carrying a boy dashed off, and the boy knew he would never see his brother again (8).

Time does not permit the reading of a complete interpretation by Carmen Gomez entitled, "Go Back." However, an excerpt will be read to indicate that each child offers a different interpretation:

The horizon was as red as fire, and it looked . . . well, it looked like a thong of red tangled in the hot sun. The wind, the wind in the drifting clouds and under the drifts of snow was like darkness coming as the stars do, a little at a time. And crystal clear tree blossoms came downward, so near to the earth and so soft and warm to where the orchards bent down as if doing exercises. And father, well, he pulled his snowshoes from off his back and looked at the golden field where his son ran. He stopped quickly and fell feebly watching his son. Then, the man painfully, slowly died. While he died, the darkness was being strangled too.

Returning to Jimenez, we read: "To be man at his best, the complete aristo is the goal of every man. If a man does not orient himself in the world toward his goal, he lives provisionally and to live provisionally is not the destiny of life, it is not really living. In this world we have to burn

completely, resolve ourselves fully, each one in the flames and the resolution appropriate to him" (12:250). Let us see that our students turn aside from stereotyped molds of patterned thought to reach outward toward the stellar universe with an inner flame which burns completely and a fire that is never extinguished.

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(Continued on page 174)

Goals of Teaching Listening Skills in the Elementary School

Not long ago the place of listening in the curriculum of the elementary school was a very dubious one. Today its place is recognized in most curriculum bulletins, in textbooks, and in almost all books dealing with the teaching of the language arts.

Fundamental to any consideration of the place of listening in the elementary school curriculum is an examination of the goals of such instruction. Before taking up this subject I would like to mention, albeit briefly, four key principles to be kept in mind by every teacher who is interested in attaining the goals of a good program of listening instruction.

FOUR KEY PRINCIPLES

A teacher must keep in mind that any listening activity in the classroom should be a pleasurable rather than a threatening experience. Very often, listening on the part of children is demanded rather than motivated. "Getting told" is seldom synonymous with "learning."

Secondly, daily class activities should be so planned that the amount of listening required of children is not overpoweringly and impossibly great. Studies have shown that in the average classroom the percentage of the day during which children are expected to engage in listening is so great as to exceed any reasonable expectation of attention and interest. These studies also show that teachers are generally unaware of the extent of their unreasonable demands in this respect. With an awareness of this situation almost inevitably

comes planning for nonlistening activities during a greater portion of the day.

It is extremely important that listening in a classroom situation not be confined to listening *by* the children *to* the teacher. It is quite essential that pupils learn to listen to each other and, above all, that the teacher show, by her example in listening to her pupils, that she regards listening as a valuable and important activity.

Lastly, classroom listening should be "for" rather than "at." When the emphasis is on sitting up straight and looking at the speaker, and I do not imply that such activities are either good or bad, rather than on the effort to get ideas, facts, and other data, the tendency is to emphasize the "listening at" rather than the "listening for" character of the activity.

PURPOSES OF TEACHING LISTENING

I come now, at long last, to the purposes of listening instruction at the elementary school level. What kind of listener is it that we wish to develop? What are the skills we must keep in mind in planning a meaningful program? What purposes do we have in devoting time to direct and incidental emphasis on good listening? In sum, what constitutes a good listener? There is no magic about the particular names I have given the ten qualities mentioned here in answer to the last question. The same ideas could be phrased in many other ways but I am certain that any list worded differently would, nevertheless, have to include these ten qualities and perhaps others as well.

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A LISTENER WHO LISTENS

First, and foremost, a good listener is one who not only *knows how* to listen but who actually *does* listen. As teachers, we can all bring to mind children who score high on reading tests, who can read fluently in class, have excellent word recognition skills, are experts in phonics, and so on, but who never read a book on their own. I cannot believe that such children may legitimately be classified as good readers. Without a doubt, the glaring failure of our schools' reading program is not that "Johnny Can't Read" after he completes his reading program, but that Johnny *doesn't* read. Studies showing the deplorably small amount of voluntary reading done by American college graduates are, I think, the major reproach to our methods of teaching reading. It reminds me somewhat of the cartoon showing a 100% spelling paper and a telephone message taken by the same pupil in which all the words on the perfect spelling paper are misspelled. We must not make the same mistake in the teaching of listening. It is for this reason that I mentioned as my first key principle to be kept in mind by a teacher of listening that listening must be a pleasurable rather than a threatening activity. It is only if this principle is kept in mind that we will have, as an outcome of our program, listeners who not only *know how* to listen but who actually *do* listen in their daily life activities.

SELECTIVE LISTENING

Then, a good listener must be selective in his choice of what to listen to. This is analogous to the development of good taste in reading. It is inconceivable to me that anyone can argue with validity that the school's responsibility ends with the teaching of a skill. Equally important is teaching proper, discriminative, and selec-

tive use of that skill. Space does not allow a discussion here about the desirability of certain kinds of children's literature, comic books, and so forth, or of types of radio and television programs. It seems to me, however, to be quite reasonable to suppose (and there is research to support this supposition) that one of the reasons children, as well as adults, are attracted to reading and listening matter, that is considered less than desirable, is that more elegant matter requires an exercise of skills that have not been so well mastered that they can be employed without the expenditure of an undue amount of effort. We cannot consider our task in teaching children to listen completed until we develop discriminating and selective choices of out-of-school listening situations. I do not suggest that this is the easiest aspect of teaching but I *do* suggest that it is more important than the mere teaching of the skill.

SKILLFUL LISTENING

Thirdly, a good listener is a skillful one who can identify the main ideas in what he is listening to. He must also be able to identify details and determine whether they are illustrative, essential, or irrelevant. He must follow the structure of the discourse and be capable of creating such a structure if the speaker himself, as often happens, does not seem to have one. He must be capable of "changing pace"—one should not listen to everything in the same way. The analogy of these necessary skills to the skills required of a good reader are so obvious that I will not dwell on it at this time. The interrelationship between reading and listening is an intriguing one which bears further research and study.

CRITICAL LISTENING

A good listener is a critical listener. He is concerned about the speaker's purposes

and motives and is not misled by catch phrases and emotionally loaded words. It is hard to imagine the change we would note in political discourse, for example, if speakers felt that they were addressing themselves to an audience of such critical listeners. I do not imply that listening should necessarily always be skeptical and disbelieving. There is no equivalency between discrimination and cynical skepticism. Neither am I saying that it is improper for speakers to have very definite motives nor that a speaker should not try to convince, to advocate changes in courses of action, or to sway opinions. I merely want to emphasize the point that a good listener must be aware of such motives and be capable of determining whether, from his standpoint, these motives are good or bad. The whole area of propaganda and of all the by-now-well-known devices used to convince regardless of the truth, is involved in teaching children to become critical listeners in the best sense of that expression. I cannot subscribe to the idea that children are ever too young to learn that everything is not necessarily true just because it has been written or said.

COURTEOUS LISTENING

Fifth, a good listener is a courteous, considerate listener. My sister, who has had a substantial number of years of experience in teaching young children, suggested to me last summer that one factor mitigating against courteous, attentive listening was the fact that pre-school children have become accustomed to the listening situation created by watching television where interruptions and lack of attention on the part of the listener are neither penalized nor prohibited. This seems a very reasonable hypothesis to me but it is not one which, in any way, relieves the school of the duty of teaching courtesy and attention

in listening. It, rather, renders this duty more urgent and necessary.

The demand for courtesy in a listening situation presents one instance where there is not a close parallel to reading. A book is not offended when we stop reading nor disturbed when we engage in some other activity between lines. A speaker, on the other hand, becomes less effective when his audience is rude and inattentive. Courtesy in listening is something more than attention, however, for it involves considerateness beyond mere attention. A courteous listener not only pays attention to the speaker but he is accepting and tolerant of the speaker's mannerisms and peculiarities and he is willing to hear, but not necessarily always to accept, ideas contrary to his own. He shows consideration for the fellow members of the audience and does not disturb or distract them. He is accepting of a speaker who falls far short of perfection. Unless he is very exceptional this is very easily done by imagining himself in the speaker's place. He is considerate and patient on those occasions when the speaker suffers some misfortune such as dropping his notes, having a coughing spell, or working with a loud speaker system that develops peculiar symptoms. Yes, he even accepts with courtesy the fact that sometimes a speaker is longwinded or tiresome.

ATTENTIVE LISTENING

A good listener is also an attentive listener. This involves training in concentration. He is able to be sufficiently selective in his listening to shut out extraneous noises, audience disturbances, and other distractions. While he is listening, he puts aside personal consideration of his own problems and devotes himself wholeheartedly to the speaker and to the speaker's words. This ability to center one's

thoughts on the matter at hand is not one that is easily acquired. Most of us, to one degree or another, are somewhat lacking in it. The habit of concentration, however, is one that can be developed by an understanding of its importance and feasibility and by sufficient practice. I have already mentioned the necessity that the requirement in the daily classroom schedule of an overpowering amount of listening should be avoided. I know of nothing that works more strongly against developing good concentration in listening than a situation of this kind. If a youngster is required or expected to listen far beyond his normal span of attention, it seems to me, inevitable that he will acquire bad habits of partial listening while his thoughts are centered upon many things other than the speaker and his words.

RETENTIVE LISTENING

Seventh, a good listener is a retentive one. He remembers what he has heard and adds it to knowledge previously acquired. In order to be able to do this, a listener must organize the content of what he is listening to in such a way that he is able to discern what parts of it confirm that which he already knows; what parts add new facts and ideas; and what parts are in conflict with his previously obtained information on the subject at hand. Even if the conflict is not resolved at the moment, a good listener retains the information that there is a difference of viewpoint on the issue in question.

Training in note taking is important in the matter of retention. There is a large amount of individual differences in the extent to which note taking is helpful or distracting. There are, however, a few general principles which research findings show to be validly applicable to all. First, *verbatim* notes are rarely, if ever, desirable.

It is much more valuable to listen for salient points and to jot only those down. Secondly, note taking should never be of a nature to distract one from close and careful listening. Thirdly, notes are of no value unless they are used. One can remember much more without taking any notes than by taking notes if they are then merely filed away or finally discarded without ever having been reviewed. The art of skillful note taking is one that is highly suitable as a subject of instruction and practice in the upper elementary school grades.

A CURIOUS LISTENER

A good listener is also a curious listener. He constantly asks questions of himself as he listens. His mind works much faster than the speaker's tongue. He takes advantage of this fact to ask himself whether what he is listening to fits in with his previous knowledge; whether the speaker is convincing and has the qualifications to be convincing; what the speaker's motives are; what the speaker's desires are as to action on the part of the audience; what background the speaker brings to his speech; what ways there are of following up the matter being listened to; what parts of the speech are facts, what parts opinion; what details are important; and what use he, the listener, will be able to make of the material being listened to. I must emphasize again, as I did when I mentioned the necessity of critical listening, that questioning or curious listening does not imply skepticism, negativeness, disbelief or lack of openmindedness toward new ideas. As a matter of fact, the questioning attitude of curiosity that I am now writing about, actually leads to a greater, rather than to a lesser, receptivity toward new ideas, even though it also serves as a means of rejecting ideas that are logically unsound

or are repugnant to principles already adopted as guidelines for one's conduct.

REACTIVE LISTENING

A good listener must be a reacting listener. He is more than a mere human blotter soaking up words as he listens to them. He actively reacts and changes his course of action when this seems desirable as a result of his listening. He doesn't consider the listening experience ended at the close of the speaker's presentation. He goes on to find out more about the subject involved. He lets the speaker know orally or in writing of his reaction. He discusses what he has heard with others and thinks about it. I need not belabor the point that those teachers who insist on an acceptance of the truth of every word they utter and who have all sorts of dodges available to avoid saying "I don't know" are hardly likely to foster this kind of reactive listening.

REFLECTIVE LISTENING

Tenth, and last, a good listener is a reflective and creative listener. He brings to bear on his listening not only what he

already knows of the subject; not only his best thinking; his standards of reasoning; and his critical powers; but also his philosophy, his feelings, and his very way of life. As he brings these to his listening, just as he should bring these to his reading, he enriches the listening experience beyond measure. Sharing becomes the keynote, rather than merely taking. We do not and cannot live alone but we do not truly become members of a society until we are willing to reflect on the contributions of other members of that society. To lack the ability to do this is a mark of loneliness. Children are often lonely, not only in the commonly accepted sense of that word, but mentally lonely, ideationally lonely, intellectually lonely. This fact offers an unparalleled opportunity for the creative, thinking teacher who can use listening experiences as a pathway to lead these children out of their sterile intellectual loneliness to a rich realization of the values offered by others. To an extent, teaching this kind of listening can become a way of teaching the art of living and that, after all, is the true function that we, as teachers, have to perform.

STIMULATING CREATIVITY IN CHILDREN AND YOUTH

(Continued from page 169)

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During the calendar year 1960, 312 separate research studies in the language arts were reported as completed or under way by respondents to a request of the National Council of Teachers of English and National Conference on Research in English. The studies were in the areas of reading, writing, listening, and speaking, and are classified in this summary in 21 related subgroups. In the two previous collections, 284 studies were reported for 1956, and appear in the April, 1957 issue of *Elementary English*; 289 studies conducted during 1958 were reported in the November, 1959 issue of the same journal. No great change in numbers can be discerned in these three compilations, although new classifications indicate changes in emphases. The encouragement of research in special education by federal agencies has resulted in a group of studies best classified as "Exceptional Children or Slow Learners." Other new topics in this compilation include "College English," "Instructional Procedures," and "Folklore."

In order to obtain a record of the studies, a request for information was sent to the deans of graduate schools throughout the country for distribution to interested faculty members, to all members of the National Conference, and to all individuals who had reported studies for the previous reports.

No attempt is made to evaluate the studies, nor to determine whether those reported as being under way are ever completed. The grouping of studies into classifications is fraught with peril; titles alone are often misleading. There was no inten-

tion of placing the studies reported inaccurately and the responsibility for such misplacement is ruefully assumed by the compiler.

It is suggested that persons interested in learning more about particular studies write for further information on theses and dissertations to the faculty sponsor at the institution involved, who can forward questions to the individual conducting the study. Information about post-doctoral studies can be obtained directly from the investigator.

The National Council, through its research committee, and the National Conference provide this information about research activity to encourage additional research, to give potential investigators information about what others are doing, and to provide comparisons of research activities in various language arts areas in the biennial periods covered.

Officers of the National Conference on Research in English during 1960 were: President, Helen M. Robinson, University of Chicago; Vice President, Constance McCullough, San Francisco State College; Secretary-Treasurer, Margaret Early, Syracuse University; Past President, Ralph Staiger, Mississippi Southern College; Member Executive Committee: Emery Bliesmer, University of Virginia. Dr. Early is also chairman of the Research Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English. The compiler is grateful to Editor John DeBoer for his cooperation and encouragement to the project.

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William S. Gray, 1885-1960

We do not often devote so much space to obituary notices, but the passing of Dr. Gray was especially shocking to thousands of teachers of reading, including this editor, who was one of his graduate students. Dr. Moore, who has given us this account of Gray's achievements, worked very closely with him over a long period of time.

J. J. D. B.

Dr. William Scott Gray, Professor Emeritus of Education at the University of Chicago, died September 8, 1960, in an accident at Billings, Montana. The accident occurred near Wolf, Wyoming, where Dr. Gray was vacationing with his wife. In sound health at seventy-five years of age, Dr. Gray was passing his vacation, as was his custom, in fishing and horseback riding. Dr. Gray is survived by his widow, two children, and three grandchildren. Dr. Gray was born at Coatsburg, Illinois, June 5, 1885, a son of William Scott and Anna Letitia Gilliland Gray. Beginning in 1904 as a teacher in the rural schools of Adams County, Illinois, he successively held positions as a teaching principal at Fowler, Illinois, and as a faculty member and principal of the training school at Illinois State Normal. He graduated from Illinois State Normal School (now University) in 1910, and later received a bachelor's degree from the University of Chicago, 1913, a master's

degree from Columbia, 1914, and a Ph. D. from the University of Chicago, 1916.

Beginning as an assistant in the department of education at the University of Chicago in 1915, he became dean of education in 1917 and served in that capacity for fifteen years. He later served as the executive secretary of the University's committee on the preparation of teachers. He retired in 1950, but as emeritus professor of educa-

tion he was designated director of research in reading and continued to serve actively in that role until the time of his death.

As a pioneer in reading, Gray's stature increased with his years, and even in "retirement" his contributions were monumental. From the date of his first publication in 1909 until his retirement in 1950, his writings numbered 407 titles.

I wrote in the May, 1957, issue of *Elementary English*, that Dr. Gray's output numbered 493 publications. By September, 1950, Dr. Gray had contributed an additional eighteen publications, including the Burton Lecture delivered at Harvard in 1956 and published by the Harvard University Press as *The Teaching of Reading: An International View*, in 1957. In the summer of 1960 he had completed the revision of his 1948 book, *On Their Own in Reading*. Other contributions include a paper delivered at the 1960 Summer Reading Conference at the University of Chi-



cago, and his summary of investigations in reading for the period, July 1, 1959 to June 30, 1960, will yet appear. Thus, Dr. Gray's total publications number in the neighborhood of 515.

Were Professor Gray's stature to be measured only by the quantity of his written contributions, he would stand forth as a most influential figure in the field of reading, for examination of the titles in his bibliography reveals the tremendous breadth of his interests. He was ever a vigorous expounder of the importance of a clear grasp of meaning in reading, the need for a carefully coordinated reading program throughout the grades and high school, and the urgent need for greatly raising the literacy level of children and adults.

His students everywhere—and they number in the thousands—attest to his scholarly attributes and to his qualities as a sharer of knowledge. His rigorous, painstaking, and exacting guidance of his students has resulted in their attainment of positions of prominence and leadership in the field of reading in this country and abroad. His interest in the problems of classroom teachers led to an unending stream of inquiries and requests for help from practitioners the world over. His assistance was solicited and received by boards, commissions, organizations, state, regional, national and international agencies concerned with problems related to reading. The career that led from the rural school and community to the offices and ministries of education in this country and in many other countries of the world was accomplished because of his steadfast adherence to the fundamental belief of the importance of the teacher's role.

Dr. Gray's first published contribution, dated 1909, was an oration entitled "Society and the Delinquent." In 1911 and

1912, he contributed a series of twelve articles to *School Century*. These were devoted to the study of geography, and were written when he was a staff member and principal of the training school at Illinois State Normal School. From these early publications began the steady flow of articles, books, book reviews, yearbooks and yearbook chapters, contributions to the proceedings of learned societies, articles and annotated bibliographies explaining and evaluating reading research both in this country and abroad, and contributions emanating from reading conferences. To this accumulation were added tests designed to diagnose reading difficulties and appraise the effectiveness of reading methods. The original and sustained interest in problems relating to reading was augmented by scores of contributions in such areas as measurement, teacher education, higher education, and methods of instruction.

Professor Gray's doctoral dissertation, *Studies of Elementary School Reading Through Standardized Tests*, published in 1917 as the first number in the *Supplementary Educational Monographs* of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, was his first scientific investigation. Over the years, nineteen volumes in this outstanding series of monographs were to bear his name as writer, compiler, and editor. Gray's *Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading*, appearing in the *Supplementary Educational Monographs* series in 1925, was the starting point for a unique and extremely valuable service to research workers and individuals interested in the periodical literature devoted to reading. Gray's "Summaries" in reading followed this original compilation in the form of yearly contributions appearing for seven years in the *Elementary School Journal*, and for an additional twenty-seven years,

from 1932 to the present, in the *Journal of Educational Research*. Beginning in 1933 and continuing through 1955, Gray contributed annotations to the *Elementary School Journal* of nontechnical articles. These he deemed to be more important for classroom teachers, whereas he viewed his annotations which appeared in his Summaries in the *Journal of Educational Research*, as being more appropriate for research pursuits. Nine numbers of the *Review of Educational Research* in the years from 1931 to 1940 carried lengthy research summaries. His views on reading appeared in the 1941, 1949, and 1960 editions of the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*.

In order to provide assistance to teachers in the field, and to aid research workers pursuing advanced degrees or studies, Dr. Gray, over the years accumulated duplicate copies of every known study which to him met with high standards and which might be truly regarded as "scientific." The two "Gray Collections," gathered at the expense of a very great amount of time and effort, to say nothing of money, were housed in his private office at the University of Chicago, and in the Department of Education Library of that institution. They have come to be regarded as the most important and complete records of reading research extant. From these resources, Dr. Gray planned a trilogy of volumes devoted to reading research. This very ambitious undertaking was to report, interpret, and relate research in reading to educational progress in America in the 20th century.

Dr. Gray pioneered in the establishment of educational conferences which yearly drew hundreds of teachers, research workers, and administrative officers to the

University of Chicago. For twelve years following 1925, he organized, directed, and edited the proceedings of the annual conference of Administrative Officers for Higher Educational Institutions. Beginning in 1939 and continuing through 1952, Gray served as writer, editor, and compiler for the proceedings of the annual summer reading conferences held at the University of Chicago. These reading conferences soon supplied clear evidence of the worthwhileness of bringing together specialists and practitioners from the classroom, and served as the prototype for reading conferences which sprung up on university and college campuses from coast to coast in the decade of the 1940's.

Following his retirement, Dr. Gray engaged in the study of reading on a worldwide scale. This was made possible by an invitation from UNESCO to make a survey and evaluation of methods used in teaching both children and adults throughout the world. The resulting publication, *The Teaching of Reading and Writing*, has been hailed as a classic study. *Maturity in Reading: Its Nature and Appraisal*, is indicative of his most recent research interests.

Early in 1960, the University of Chicago set up the William S. Gray Research Professorship in Reading, and before his death, Professor Gray had himself, and with others, set up two foundations to further reading research.

Dr. Gray's passing will be mourned, but through his work and through his students continued progress is assured.

Walter J. Moore
Professor of Education
The University of Illinois



MURIEL CROSBY
Chairman, Elementary Section, NCTE

A Golden Anniversary is one of those special events that call for special recognition in the life of an individual, an institution or an organization. And the National Council of Teachers of English is not an organization to let golden opportunities pass unnoticed. Its fiftieth convention reflected in its planning and in its observance of the occasion pride in accomplishments past, present and yet to be.

In its best attended convention, the Elementary Section may take pride in its representation, its excellent meetings, its plans for future development of resources of special concern to elementary teachers and its contributions to the work of the Council.

And it is of plans for the future, the future of the Elementary Section, that I wish to report in this newsletter. Much of the work of the Elementary Section is centered in its committees. These committees are established to prepare publications or suggest action in dealing with specific aspects of the language arts of concern to elementary teachers.

... With the publication of the newest edition of *ADVENTURING WITH BOOKS* (1960) plans are underway to establish the committee for the preparation of the 1964 edition.

... Four committees established since the November 1959 Convention are well underway. These are described in the "Report of the Elementary Section Committee," *Elementary English*, November 1960,

page 480. Each of these committees met with its chairman or co-chairman during the 1960 convention.

... One committee, The Intercultural Book List Committee, established following the 1958 convention, is continuing work in progress.

Suggestions for the Future

More and more frequently, Elementary Section members are communicating their suggestions for moving ahead in meeting the needs of elementary teachers. The following suggestions have been received.

... The development of a pamphlet or portfolio of reprints or articles from *Elementary English* analyzing the writings of outstanding children's authors and illustrators.

... The preparation of a bulletin on helps for beginning teachers in developing a sound language arts program.

... The preparation of a bulletin on vocabulary development.

... The preparation of a publication on poetry.

Your reactions to these suggestions and additional suggestions for specific aids to elementary members would be appreciated.

Elementary English—Past and Future

During Dr. John DeBoer's eighteen years of service as editor of *Elementary English*, the Elementary Section magazine has grown in stature and influence. In June, 1961, Dr. DeBoer's service as editor ter-

minates at his request. This constitutes a great loss, for Dr. DeBoer's leadership, skill, and understanding have been a constant source of strength. The respect and affection which Dr. DeBoer has earned from all members of the Council is reflected in his achievement of the W. Wilbur Hatfield Award, the highest honor conferred by the Council and one that is held by only five other members.

But as speakers on convention programs frequently reminded their audiences, Golden Anniversary clouds often have golden linings. *Elementary English's* new editor is

an old friend, Dr. William A. Jenkins, Professor of Elementary Education at the University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, and editor of the feature, "The Educational Scene," for the past seven years, who will assume the editorship. If you have followed Bill's column in *Elementary English* you are already acquainted with the bold, vigorous, courageous, and tactful way he is able to focus attention upon potential threats to sound education. The Elementary Section extends a warm and enthusiastic welcome to our new editor.

G. R. Carlsen—First Vice President, NCTE

As the Council moves into its second fifty years of service, a handful of problems seem of crucial importance. None is new, but conditions of the times and attitudes of teachers and the public have made them important as never before.

Problem 1. The Definition of the Subject of English. Except in the area of skills, the profession is not really unified in its vision of its subject matter. Everyone is relatively sure that English should teach boys and girls to read, to write, and to spell. Beyond these three, there is wide diversity of opinion. Some feel that oral language is not a legitimate concern of the English class. While most people believe firmly that literature is a part of English, there has never been any real consensus about the objectives to be sought in its study. Recent statements have asserted that the English teacher's responsibility is solely to the English language and its literature. Other statements have suggested that the central core of English is found in the study of meanings: of how they are derived, transmitted, and received. Psychologists indicate the inseparability of language, meaning, and personality development.

Almost all problems in teaching English cannot ultimately be tackled until there is a more nearly clear-cut definition of the subject we teach. Present attempts at automation in teaching, restructuring of class size, construction of school buildings, the utilization of teacher time, the problems of teacher training, the evaluation of the individual's performance are stabs in the dark until we know precisely what we want to teach.

The concept approach to curriculum building, which has proved to be enormously helpful in the social studies, mathematics, and the sciences, might prove fruitful in defining the English curriculum. Many of our present recommendations for the subject are stated on the percept level as a series of statements of immediate items to be brought to children's attention: a particular activity in language or a particular selection of reading. A large number of our disagreements might disappear if we tried through the Council to spell out the concepts that we feel should be developed in a child's understanding. The attempt to list concepts might push us toward a real definition of our subject.

Problem II. The Training and Accreditation of Teachers. Everyone realizes that the training programs for English teachers are seriously inadequate to equip the teacher for the job that he has to do. However, no institution has boldly stepped out to do something about the situation. It is axiomatic to insist that the teacher be adequately grounded in the subject matter of the field. Theoretically the departmental major of the academic English departments should provide the subject matter preparation. However, the majors in the institutions of the country are seriously out of step with the content that the teacher needs. They are devoted almost entirely to courses in literature, although at least a half of the teacher's responsibility on the job is for instruction in language. In most majors only one course is required in advanced composition or speech or in Latin grammar that gives the student little understanding of the real operation of the English language. Even in literature, the program often bypasses bodies of literature of tremendous importance to the teacher in today's schools: the programs deal overwhelmingly with English literature, making only gestures toward American and world literatures, and usually giving no attention to adolescent literature. The training program typically provides little help for the trainee in instruction in reading and little knowledge of the mass media of communication. Thus the beginning teacher really has been trained to teach one thing: the history of English literature.

No other profession could tolerate training programs so inadequately geared to the needs of the practitioner. I seriously doubt that we can indulge in such a luxury in the times of educational emergency in which we live. In many ways the profession has brought its difficulties on itself by permitting the tradition of the extremely

limited major to function as the training media for its teachers.

Accreditation has been a means by which professions strive to increase their effectiveness through rigid enforcement of set standards. In recent years, while there have been many pleas for raising the competence of the teaching profession, there have been just as many pleas that individuals be permitted to teach even though they have not met certification barriers. The implication is that teaching English is not a professional competency gained through rigid study and controlled experiences, but that it can be effectively carried out as adequately by any housewife with a college degree. It is interesting how people recoil at the suggestion that a science major automatically prepares a person as a practicing physician or dentist. But there seems no recognition of the fact that the skill of teaching English is a skill that must be learned. The Council needs to guard jealously the gains that have been made in certification standards and to push to secure even higher requirements for admission of individuals as practitioners of the profession.

Problem III. The Inequality of Education Opportunity in Teachers, Program, and Materials. As one observes English instruction throughout the country, one is conscious of the wide differences in program, teaching, and materials from community to community and often from school to school within the same school system. One realizes that where a child happens to be born determines to a considerable extent what he will receive from the educational program. Recent studies bear out the fact that the product of schools varies widely even when intelligence is not a factor. Such studies suggest that the better product is coming from the larger schools, usually in urban areas.

In some schools, students write frequently; in others, almost not at all. In general, outside of urban schools, the library facilities are almost completely inadequate. Few schools meet the A. L. A. standards for per capita expenditure for library materials. Furthermore, the most impoverished school libraries are usually in communities with inadequate public libraries.

The differences that exist could perhaps be tolerated in a society in which it was assumed that the majority of young people would settle in their own communities. In such a society, education might possibly be considered a community affair. It might be said that people had the right "to ruin their own children in their own way." However, the increasing mobility of the American population makes the inadequacies of a single school system the concern of all. In several American cities, fifty per cent of the scholastics come from families of recent migrants to the community. The problems these communities are facing are almost exactly the problems that were faced seventy-five to a hundred years ago when the schools undertook the acculturation of immigrants from foreign countries. The Council might well lend its power to awakening the citizenry to the qualities of an adequate English program, perhaps through drawing up an evaluative instrument which people in local communities could use in evaluating their English offerings.

Problem IV. Changing Patterns of Communication. Lou LaBrant has for years pointed out that in the last fifty years there has been a major revolution in communication habits and potentialities. The use of oral-aural communication has grown tremendously. New avenues of esthetic enjoyment have become commonplace. Francis Shoemaker, among others, has constantly prodded us to study communication

in all its media as a process of human relationships as well as studying it as a process of linguistics. What are the implications of these ideas for the program in English today? Can we still limit a program to the study of the time-honored rhetorical principles and analysis of language and prepare boys and girls for the twenty-first century in which most of them will be living?

Problem V. Censorship of Literary Materials. In Los Angeles, in Des Moines, in Tulsa, in Hartford, and in Chicago, English teachers at meetings have raised the issue of censorship on moral bases of selections of literature they felt were important to use with adolescents in their classes. In one way the concern of the public indicates the belief of the man on the street that literature does have a powerful impact on human beings, that it is something more than pure esthetic structure.

Calitri states the issue magnificently in a recent *English Journal* article in which he points out the confused world of values in which the adolescent lives, a world in which there are goodness, badness, and every mixture in between. Priestley at the Council convention called literature a kind of first aid kit to help in the difficult period of adjustment to living that the adolescent is undergoing. It can accomplish such ends only if it realistically looks at the whole of life, not at simply a small segment of it. The Council needs to give major attention to the standards by which a book can be judged for use in the classroom.

In conclusion, the major continuing problem of our profession is the necessity of keeping our sight firmly and eternally on the welfare of the child in the classroom. Often an organization or a subject loses this vision as it seeks to perpetuate itself or its practitioners. What has been taught

(Continued on page 203)



Alice Sankey

Teacher Image

Educators who missed watching TV on Sunday, November 13, when the Columbia Broadcasting System special "The Influential Americans" was broadcast, lost the opportunity of seeing themselves cast as stars of the show.

The spotlight turned on gifted teachers and the quality of teaching "which must be maintained and improved." Ranging from a visit in a unified classroom in Evanston, Ill., where high school seniors were being enthralled with living poetry, to the TV instruction "bouncing" from an airplane over the Midwest to dozens of classrooms, the program was gripping and thrilling.

Children giving their own views of experimental teaching were included in the "peek" at the inner works of laboratory schools. Team teaching, elementary classes moving from room to room for each subject as in high school, a "pony rider" teacher in the west bringing language courses to schools, and a charming Frenchman drawing answers from his pupils via a TV screen providing absorbing televiewing.

The telecast image of the teaching profession and upcoming attempts to solve the problem of providing enough qualified instructors for the mushrooming population should have a tremendous impact on the nation. It remains to be seen whether

Howard K. Smith, who was in charge of the program, put over his lesson.

The program editorialized about the effect on children's minds of underpaid teachers swamped with work and with little time to keep up with their subjects or even prepare for their classes. (There was no mention of experiments in hiring "teacher-secretaries" to handle details such as filing, mimeographing, correction of assignments, etc., which school boards have approved in some cities.) Nor did the telecast answer all questions which might have passed through the minds of the viewers. What happens if there is a power failure? If the picture tube glimmers out in the middle of the chemistry test?

A teacher in one of the Denver schools which studied the Spanish language with the aid of television had this complaint: After completing a course of study, the TV instructor telecast an oral examination for his remote-control pupils. However, he took up so much time explaining how the test was to be conducted that he had to rush through the questions. They came so thick and fast neither the pupils nor the teacher had time to grasp them.

Perhaps the trial and error method is the only way to smooth out the process. Like the housewives who test a product for a manufacturer, the working teacher should not only point up the good qualities, but

find the flaws and offer suggestions for improvement. Whether the Denver teacher complained loud and long to the right people is not known, but unless SOMEONE tells them, how are the laboratory technicians going to know that the Spanish class ended the term upset and confused?

On the other side of the TV picture, a pictorial article entitled "School TV—The Process of Learning," published in the Milwaukee Journal Sunday, January 15, 1961, reveals that for every 20 minute TV lesson, Mrs. Irene Senia requires 26 hours of teacher preparation. Total TV instruction is offered in Spanish to fifth and sixth grade pupils. The children have no written assignments and no homework. Spanish is the only subject, at present, which has total TV instruction, in the TV program which has 130 elementary and secondary schools participating.

Rochert Suchy, director of the educational TV department of the public school since the fall of 1957 when educational TV started in Milwaukee as part of an experiment in 13 cities, was quoted as saying, "The job of school TV is to teach children how to learn. The need for the flesh and blood teacher will increase—not decrease—because of the TV program."

Suchy says the school TV neither attempts total curriculum instruction in all subjects nor tries to steal the thunder of the individual teacher.

The human interest angle is found in the TV studio mechanics. According to Aaron Shansky, production co-ordinator, he

has had problems to solve pertaining to snakes, chicks, and baby alligators.

"We had snakes by the dozen. They all gave birth at the same time," he said, admitting that he has learned a few scientific facts while helping to produce shows for classes in art, music, physical education, and science.

Pictured also was a group of elementary teachers learning to teach Spanish as part of the in-service training. Attending classes on their own time, usually at night, the teachers are helped by the TV classes, too.

From another source comes a "teacher image," a quotation from a symposium address given by Benjamin Willis, General Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools.

"Generally, to speak of the school is to conjure up in the public mind an image of a building," he said. "It would be closer to the truth were the word 'school' to bring to mind a picture of a teacher. The teacher makes the school."

He cited data about teacher shortages, class sizes, and other statistics, then added: "Statistics, however, are faceless. The teacher is not faceless. Nor is he or she a machine. A teacher is a person, with aging parents or young children, with buoyant spirit and the desire to succeed, with off days as well as good days, with humor and sadness, and with frustrations as well as rewards."

The millions of viewers who saw "The Influential Americans" broadcast did not find the "teacher image" destroyed, but rather enhanced by the electronic age dramatization of education.

Idea Inventory



Louise Mortensen

"The artistic representation of history," said Aristotle, "is a more serious pursuit than the exact writing of history, for the art of letters goes to the heart of things."

Because I once visited Fort Ticonderoga between beautiful Lake George and Lake Champlain, books about those historic years when France and England fought for control of North America seem real to me. Cooper called *The Last of the Mohicans* 'A Narrative of 1757' describing the capture of Fort William Henry on Lake George by the French under Montcalm. As boys usually like books about adventures in forests, many boys' books are about this period. The Altscheler books covering the Old French and Indian War include *Lords of the Wild*, *Masters of the Peaks*, and *Rulers of the Lakes*.

River of the Wolves by Stephen W. Meader (Harcourt) begins in the month of July, but whether it was July 1757 or 1758 I was not sure. In reply to my question the author sent this letter.

I'm afraid you have me at a serious disadvantage, for I'm far removed from my source material in both time and space. We've been at our summer home in Stone Harbor since early this week, and there isn't even a good library nearby. As nearly as I can recollect, after a lapse of ten years or more, the year I had in mind was 1758 though quite possibly it was 1757. The map I used was a delightful old French map dated 1757.

You cite some undeniable historical dates, but some of them may mislead you. Ticonderoga, for instance, was under some Indian attack at least a year before Montcalm captured it. Likewise,

though I can't verify this, I assume that Amherst was contemplating an expedition against Louisbourg at least a year before he completed it. If we take July, 1757, as the beginning of the story, your other points fall into place fairly neatly. Even the reference to Acadia fits with 1758 when the boy and girl escaped across the Height of Land. I chose Dover as the starting place because I was brought up in that area. Without the book before me I believe the first chapter picks him up some distance west of Dover, and the Merrimack is the natural way northward. I don't attempt to write history, but to give young readers a fair picture of the times and troubles of a period. I hope you'll read and be equally critical of my next book, *Buffalo and Beaver*, coming out this fall. It's a story of the Mountain Men.

Sincerely yours, Stephen W. Meader

On rereading *River of the Wolves* I decided the book opens in July 1758 as Dave's uncle at Dover says: "The story is now that the French have called in all the tribes an' sent 'em against General Abercrombie. So unless he gets licked at Ticonderoga we'll probably be able to work in peace the rest o' the summer."

The historical fact is that on July 8, 1758, Montcalm defeated the British and held Fort Ticonderoga for the French. The next year, 1759, Montcalm had to withdraw from the Champlain Corridor, and Lord Jeffery Amherst captured the fort without a fight. Then in September 1759 Wolfe captured Quebec. *Drummer Boy for Montcalm* by Wilma Pitchford Hays (Viking) is a colorful story giving the French side of this attack. The drummer boy was the author's own great-great-great-grandfather. A

year later in the fall of 1760 the French surrendered Montreal and Detroit, and in 1763 adventurous New France came to an end when all of Canada and the French lands east of the Mississippi (except for New Orleans) were ceded to the British.

Authors often use maps when they write their books, and boys and girls can try map-making as they read *River of the Wolves*, with the Merrimack and Connecticut Rivers, Lake Champlain, the Chaudiere River, the St. Lawrence, the River of the Wolves, and then such a map as the old French priest had at the Indian camp. This could lead to some original stories inspired by a beautiful map.

Hay-Foot, Straw-Foot by Erick Berry (Viking) also takes place in 1758 when the provincial soldiers drilled in the hot June sun at Camp Crailo across the river from Albany, preparing to march to Lake George and thence to Ticonderoga. The foreword says:

The story is authentic as far as Fort Crailo, Dr. Shuckberg, and General Abercrombie's army are concerned. It is true the men marched north to this tune; but alas, not to victory.

The truth is they marched to defeat, so to say: "And Si ahead of them all, ahead of the whole army, all marching north to victory" misrepresents history. Is it right to deceive the boys and girls who read the book, or shall we infer that the soldiers merely thought they were marching north to victory?

The boy in Southey's famous poem, "The Battle of Blenheim," asks:

"Now tell us all about the war
And what they fought each other for."

In the French and Indian War they fought for the *land*, and if the fighting was bloody and ugly at least it is called by its right name: fiendish scalping by savages, cruel sword-play, painful wounds, torture, and starvation.

Calico Captive by Speare (Houghton), based on an old diary, takes place in 1754. Lois Lenski's *Indian Captive* is about the famous Mary Jemison who preferred to live with the Senecas. The brief story, *The Matchlock Gun* by Walter D. Edmonds (Dodd) describes the horrors in the Hudson Valley in 1756. *Black River Captive* by West Lathrop (Random) is about an orphan boy "captivated" in the fall of 1757, who fell in with one of Rogers' Rangers and warned Fort Number Four on the Connecticut River. Although Major Rogers was idolized in the 1750's, he was banished by New Hampshire in 1788 because he remained loyal to England. *The Flicker's Feather* by Merritt P. Allen (Longmans) is also about a New Hampshire boy who joined Rogers' Rangers. *Rogers' Rangers and the French and Indian War* is a Landmark Book. *Ranger's Ransom* by Herbert Best (Dutton) is the story of Ticonderoga, as is *The Long Portage* (1758) by the same author (Viking). *Indian Wars and Warriors East*: by Wellman is a North Star Book. *Cardigan* by R. W. Chambers is in Harper's Junior Classics. *The Gold-Laced Coat* by Helen Fuller Orton, "A Story of Old Niagara," begins in September 1758 and ends when the French surrender Fort Niagara to the English in July 1759. It shows the gallantry of the French in contrast with other stories which show the French as cruel, inciting the Indians to kill the settlers. The author says she used old maps and scholarly works as a basis for her story. *Prince in Buckskin* by Widdemer (Winston) is about young Joseph Brant as he aided the English in the struggle to capture Lake George. *Mohawk Valley* by Ronald O. Welch (Criterion 1858) describes the capture of Quebec, and *Fighting Yankee* by Robert E. Pike (Abelard-Schuman) is about Captain John Stark who captured Montreal in 1760. *Journey for Jemima* (Walck) is about a captive.

A beautiful picture book called "Fort Ticonderoga" compiled by S. H. P. Pell is for sale at the Fort Museum for only 75 cents. Address: Museum, Ticonderoga, New York. "Houses of History in New York State" and "New York State Vacationlands" are available free on request to the Department of Commerce, 112 State Street, Albany, N. Y. The State Education Department at Albany will send "Historic Sites of New York State."

After peace was signed in 1763, Colonel Henry Bouquet went into the Ohio Country and demanded the return of the white captives. *The Light in the Forest* by Conrad Richter is about a 15-year-old boy who

returns to his Pennsylvania home in 1765. Because his Indian father had called him True Son since he was four years old, he rebelled against his white neighbors and ran away; but he had learned to love his small white brother. When asked to act as a treacherous decoy on the river bank, the sight of a small white boy now turned him against the Indians. He is like the mulatto in Countee Cullen's quatrain: "Ambiguous of race I stand/Despised by one, scorned by the other/Not knowing where to stretch a hand/And cry my sister or my brother."

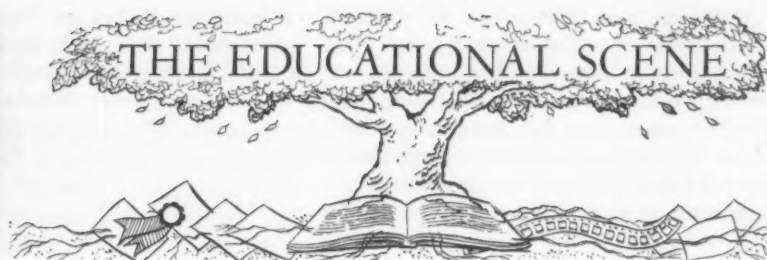
Boys especially should learn the true history of the "Old French War" which Francis Parkman spent a lifetime studying.

RETIRED TEACHER

At the age of sixty, Augusta Stevenson retired from the Indianapolis school system and started to write for Bobbs-Merrill. Her first book in 1935 was *Abe Lincoln*, the inaugural book in the Childhood of Famous Americans series. To date, it has sold 178,540 copies. Among her other books *Ben Franklin* has sold 108,710 copies, *Buffalo Bill* 115,316, *Daniel Boone* 129,429, *George Washington* 114,363, and *Kit Carson* 111,061 copies. All of her books are still in print, and none of them has sold less than 50,000 copies. Her total sales have been 1,750,000.



William A. Jenkins



Some thoughts on writing

To us, the larger share of effort today to reorganize and revitalize the language arts curriculum is directed toward writing. In recent years various *administrative* concerns have attracted attention. Questions about how many classes and how many students should a high school English teacher be responsible for, and what is the optimum number of words an elementary student might be expected to write in a given period have been wrestled with. Similarly, we have asked ourselves whether a teacher might reasonably, with no loss in teaching efficiency, use nonprofessional help for the reading and grading of written work. In fact, we have even asked whether teaching efficiency might not be increased by this administrative change.

The list of questions we have been asking ourselves and others might be extended almost indefinitely. Perhaps our concerns stem from a desire to change speedily the language arts in the way in which mathematics, foreign languages, and science have been changed through "crash" programs. Perhaps we have been convinced that we have not been "pursuing excellence" with the determination that we should. Either of these ambitions, ostensibly commendable, potentially is dangerous.

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The language arts represent a broad front, composed of reading, writing, speaking, and so on. To single out writing, as apparently we have, for improvement, emphasis, administrative manipulations, and curricular concern may not be beneficial.

For our purposes here—and the argument is not based wholly on semantic considerations—*English* is a better term than *language arts*. *English* connotes a *whole*; *language arts*, facets or pieces. As a whole, the entire body would have to be moved ahead in a plan for improvement. The facets of *language arts*, moreover, lend themselves to subordination. That is, while there may be reluctance to posit *English* as a skill subject, one which *services* social studies, arithmetic, and art, there seems to be little hesitancy to claim that children must learn to read or write or speak well because their not doing so adversely affects other subjects in the curriculum. Extremists, both in and out of *English*, credit *English*, more than any other subject, with teaching children to *think*. The aftermath of their claims at times has been something less than comfortable.

Benefits may be derived from the present concerns with composition, however. The second looks which we are taking afford us opportunities for considering the relationship of writing to grammar and to reading and literature.

First off, we might adopt the position that grammar study separated in time from writing and speaking activities is tedious and unfruitful study. With the English curriculum becoming more and more crowded, wasteful use of time cannot be defended. Juxtapositioning or correlating grammar study with writing and speaking activities is not enough, however. Teachers should establish definite, positive connections between the need for study of specific grammatical entities and the development of writing and speaking skills. As a matter of fact, the connections form both the basis and the test for grammar study. The teacher should be prepared to answer satisfactorily the question, "What will be the result if my class doesn't study this particular grammatical form?" If the answer is "nothing," obviously the study is busy work. Indeed, teachers should encourage children to ask, "Why are we studying this?" One invalid answer is "Because it will help you write better." The child should be given specific answers. If specifics are impossible, the grammar study is probably unnecessary. The relationships should be pointed out to the children as they undertake the study, and the relationships should be tested in a writing situation. One final value is that the crutch leaned on by many teachers can be discarded. If teachers must justify teaching grammar through the existence of functional relationships, many items now taught simply because the grammatical terminology so acquired *may* be useful in explaining inadequacies in writing will have to be discarded.

We are not ignoring the usage approach to language. The criteria of social custom and social penalties must still play their part in writing and speaking activities. This we do not question. But because both of these criteria have limitations in convincing young children to change their language patterns, many teachers have fallen back

on grammar. A few of the more daring have placed their faith in structural linguistics. In either case, establishing *connections* appears a valid criterion.

A second advantage of the present reconsiderations might be to cease fragmenting English. More strongly put, writing is best taught in a context which includes reading and literature. Viewing writing as *composing* is a more convincing position. What the child reads will provide him with inspiration, thought, and models. The two activities should also not be separated in time but be viewed as a continuous operation.

Children can write before, during, and after reading activities. From their reading they may be inspired to reproduce pieces of writing. They can comment on what they have read. They can adapt ideas their reading has given them to their own mode of expression and manner of thinking. Out of their reading they may glean a central idea, a character or a quotation and from these write on a tangent, so to speak.

Both of these integrating approaches call for a census. What grammatical study can we defend on the basis of its direct value to achieving proficiency in writing, teachers must ask. And how many different ways does writing (composing) grow naturally, out of reading and literature activities? (Don't stop at book reports!) The result should be better writing, but also more effective reading and grammar, too.

New materials

The Administrator and the Improvement of Reading by Ruth Strang and Donald M. Lindquist, New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, Inc., 1960. 109 pp. \$1.10. This is the latest in the "Current Problems in Education" series. As the title indicates, it is directed to administrators who are confronted by two paradoxes: (1) although

usually they have not been trained in the teaching of reading, they are responsible for the school's reading program; (2) although their concerns must necessarily be all facets of the school's curriculum, they must place extra emphasis on reading, for success or failure in this one area of instruction characterizes their schools. Many helpful ideas may be found in the volume.

At a Zoo by Heni Wenkart, 4 Shady Hill Square, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 23 pp. \$0.58. This is the first in a series of very early books designed to help children learn to read phonetically. This first volume is illustrated with simple, two-color drawings and requires that the child know only the consonant, sounds, *oo*, and the sound of *a* as in *cat*. Other volumes in the series will be: *The Man in the Moon*, using *i* as in *fix* and *the*; and *Fun at Camp*, adding *u* as in *fun*. The booklets are available in lower case letters, or with each line printed twice, in two different colors, with the corresponding lower case letter below each capital letter.

An Adventure in Human Relations, edited by Muriel Crosby. Wilmington, Delaware: Wilmington Public Schools, 1960. 34 pp. This is Section 1 of a progress report on the first year's development of the Three-Year Experimental Project on Schools in Changing Neighborhoods. It is written for the general public, professional educators, and community workers and gives major aspects of the Project in its first phase. Section 2, is designed for professional educators and community workers who will use the report in their own human relations projects. It is available on a loan basis, only.

In its first year the study, which, incidentally, has been co-sponsored by the National Conference of Christians and Jews, has attempted to do three things: (1) identify children's problems in their social setting; (2) develop a curriculum centered

in children's problems in their social setting; and (3) evaluate the significance of children's problems for curriculum development. Following the recognition of community problems not at all unique to Wilmington—migration (or flight) to the suburbs of many of the middle and upper classes, with the void created by their departure being filled by the havenots, Puerto Ricans and Negroes; urban decay and displacement of people for urban renewal and expressways; and the aftermath of compliance with the Supreme Court decision on segregated schools—the schools of Wilmington took the lead in marshalling study of and attack on the problems.

What follows can be a lesson for backward, hesitant or unorganized cities everywhere. There is much to be said against those who, for example, would strip the English curriculum of its "social concerns" to return to the classics, to prepare *all* for college, or for any other reason. A quick glance at the statements of the children, who, after all, were the chief concern of those who made the study, reveals that before any of what traditionally is considered part of the curriculum can be undertaken, the dilemmas of daily living—or existing—must be resolved. If these problems become the teacher's lot through forfeit rather than through logic, the needs of children are no less pressing, the professional obligation no less demanding.

An Adventure in Human Relations is satisfying reading, quite removed from either research or textbook language. Dr. Crosby ends the story of the first year's activities with a poem which we quote in part. It is called "The Children Speak."

WE ARE THE FUTURE

When you look at us
You see yourselves.

When you look at us
You see the heritage of many peoples,
Molded and melded into a common
heritage.

When you look at us
You see the future you have shaped.

When you look at us
You see all children,
Everywhere.

The Children's Book Caravan. This book-let contains descriptions of the 700 books which Mrs. Ruth Tooze (810 Ingleside Place, Evanston, Illinois) uses as the caravan collection in traveling to speak to parents', children's, and teacher groups. This latest edition contains many books published in 1960 and calls attention to other books by the more prolific authors. Mrs. Tooze is now in her tenth year of journeying and sharing books in this country and overseas.

The Graflex Audiovisual Digest, edited by James M. Meagber. This is a useful collection of articles about audiovisual materials, reprinted from professional journals. Most major a-v aids are discussed and a few advertisements of Graflex products are included. Write to Graflex, Inc., Rochester 3, New York. 48 pp. \$0.25.

Caldecott Medal Books Now In Filmstrips

Eight books that have been awarded the Caldecott Medal comprise the new Picture Book Parade filmstrips announced for spring release by Weston Woods, Weston, Connecticut. Titled the *Caldecott Medal Series* through special arrangement with the Children's Services Division of the American Library Association, new productions include:

The Big Snow, The Haders—Macmillan
Chanticleer and the Fox, Barbara Cooney—Crowell

Finders Keepers, Lipkind & Mordvinoff—Harcourt

Frog Went A-Courtin', Langstaff & Robjankovsky—Harcourt

The Little Island, MacDonald & Weisgard—Doubleday

Madeline's Rescue, Ludwig Bemelmans—Viking

Time of Wonder, Robert McCloskey—Viking

A Tree Is Nice, Udry & Simont—Harper

All in color, the filmstrips may be purchased individually at \$6.50 or as a series of 8 at the special price of \$42.00. Phonograph records based on these books are in production for fall release.

NCTE now has arranged to offer Weston Woods productions at special discounts to members. See the advertisement in this issue.

Children's Book Club

Here are the March selections of the Weekly Reader Children's Book Club:

Early Reader (primary) Division:

The Secret Hiding Place by Rainey Bennett (World)

Star Reader (intermediate) Division:

Castaways in Lilliput by Henry Winterfield (Harcourt, Brace)

Carnival of Books

Following is the March schedule of this series, conducted by Ruth Harshaw. Dates given are for broadcasts over WMAQ, Chicago, 7:45-8:00 a.m., CST. Check the station in your area for day and time of broadcast.

March 5: *Botticelli* by Elizabeth Ripley. (Lippincott)

March 12: *The Far Frontier* by William O. Steele (Harcourt, Brace)

March 19: *The Old Testament*. Guest author, Marguerite de Angeli (Doubleday)

March 26: Newbery award to be announced.

Junior Literary Guild

Here are the selections for March:

For boys and girls, 5 and 6 years old:

The Pie Wagon by Lillian Budd. Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, \$2.75.

For boys and girls, 7 and 8 years old:

Higgins and the Great Big Scare by Rebecca Caudill. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, \$2.95.

For boys and girls 9, 10, and 11 years old:

Cappy and the River by Lynn Avery. Duell, Sloan and Pearce, \$3.00.

For older girls, 12 to 16 years old:

June Finds a Way by Emily Hahn. Franklin Watts, \$2.95.

For older boys, 12 to 16 years old:

Brother of the Wind by Jerry Wolfert. John Day, \$3.50.

NATIONAL LIBRARY WEEK

National Library Week will be celebrated April 16-22, 1961. This movement to focus attention on the vital and unique role of the printed word in our national life is a time for all media of communications to unite in a coordinated effort with libraries, schools, organized groups and business to stimulate lifetime reading habits, to encourage widespread use of libraries of all kinds, and to increase support for public, school and college libraries.

In 1961, all phases of the program will be expanded to heighten appreciation of read-

ing opportunities for all citizens, of every age. The program will be marked also by special emphases: reading for American youth; the importance of school libraries as a major factor in the total educational process, and a project designed to increase participation by people in the industry.

The theme: "For a richer, fuller life—Read!"

National Library Week is sponsored by the National Book Committee, Inc., an independent non-profit citizens' group, in cooperation with the American Library Association and with the active participation of more than fifty national organizations of all kinds.

Since its inception in 1958, this citizens' movement in behalf of reading development and the extension of library services has drawn growing, enthusiastic response from prominent leaders, representing an increasingly broader cross-section of American life.

Most significant, the program has the active support of representative Americans who are aware that the values to be found in reading are an essential part of daily life. For many thousands, in communities of all kinds throughout the nation, Library Week provides an effective instrument to create a climate for intellectual growth and personal fulfillment.

COUNCILETTER

(Continued from page 193)

in the past is not good enough for the children of the future. What we know as human beings who have specialized in this field is not enough for the practitioners of

the future. The children we now teach will live in a world that is not our world. Therefore we must strive constantly to teach on the edge of discovery, to teach so that the individual is freed rather than confined by our teaching.



Mabel F. Altstetter

BOOKS for Children

Edited by Mabel F. Altstetter and Muriel Crosby

Poetry

A Child's Garden of Verses. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Illustrated by Mary Shillabeer with woodcuts by the author. Dutton (Dent), 1960. \$2.75. (6-12)

The new edition is published in England as part of a series called *The Children's Illustrated Classics*. In addition to the well known poems twenty-two others have been added and these are illustrated by Stevenson's charming woodcuts. The color drawings are of inferior quality and add nothing to the book.

A

100 More Story Poems. Selected by Elinor Parker. Illustrated by Peter Spier. Crowell, 1960. \$3.75. (12-16)

Here is a good companion to Miss Parker's *100 Story Poems*. There are many poems in this collection that can be read aloud to the young child as well as others for young people of junior high school age. The collection includes many old favorites and others not so well known. The poems will have special appeal for children who need an interesting introduction to poetry.

A

Birthday Candles Burning Bright. Selected by Sara and John E. Brewton. Decorations by Vera Bock. Macmillan, 1960. \$3.50. (All ages)

Another anthology of children's poetry by the Brewtons is always welcome. Their

taste in selection is always good and their range of interest is wide. As the title indicates all the poems are about birthdays and there is something for all ages. A group of poems about Christ's birthday is included.

A



Sugar and Spice. By Phyllis McGinley. Pictures by Colleen Browning. Watts, 1960. \$2.95. (6-10)

The sub-title of this book is "The A B C of Being a Girl" and each verse mentions in alphabetical order some of the pleasures of being a girl. There is freedom from hackneyed expressions and situations and



Muriel Crosby

a lilting flow of words that gives the reader a sense of participation in the pleasure. The illustrator has caught the spirit of the verses and each page is a delight. Parents as well as children will like the book.

A

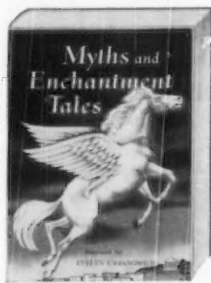
A Boy Is a Boy. By Ogden Nash. Pictures by Arthur Shilstone. Watts, 1960. \$2.95. (6-10)

A distinguished humorist and writer of light verse is at his best in this book. There is the same twist of words and unusual rhymes that characterize his other verse as he describes the fun of being a boy as a dog sees it. The dog is lost and in his efforts to find his master he describes him to various woodland creatures. Grownups will like the book and see in it some things that children will miss.

A

Folklore

Myths and Enchantment Tales. Retold by Margaret Evans Price. Illustrated by Evelyn Urbanovich. Rand, 1960. \$2.95. (All ages)



Twenty-five of the most loved myths of Greece and Rome have been republished from an older edition by Miss Price. The simple language and flowing style have been preserved. The color illustrations are especially attractive because of their rhythm, at once imaginative and life-like. The binding, print, and paper are of high quality.

A

Greek Gods and Heroes. Retold by Robert Graves. Illustrated by Dimitris Davis. Doubleday, 1960. \$2.95. (9-15)

The well-known English poet and classical scholar has recounted in twenty-seven chapters the rise and fall of the Greek gods



and heroes from the earliest times when they reigned supreme over the world of mortals to the death in 363 AD of the last Roman Emperor to worship the Olympians.

The stories are told with a poet's care in use of words. There is a gentle kind of humor in many situations and the whole book is interesting. As an introduction to Greek and Roman mythology these stories will provide an excellent background for understanding the legends that have inspired centuries of great art and literature. Those who know the stories well will be pleased with the freshness of Robert Graves' treatment.

A

The Spooky Thing. By William Steele. Illustrated by Paul Croker. Harcourt, 1960. \$2.75. (6-10)

This tall tale is not for the fainthearted because it is filled with violence, scary creatures, dark woods, and haunted houses. Taken as it is meant to be, the reader will find it a rollicking, rambunctious story of two young brothers who were as "ornery as a bushel of rattlesnakes." The language



is the vernacular of the crude Tennessee frontier as it quite properly should be. The illustrations suit perfectly the lusty fun of the story. A

Fiction

Casey the Utterly Impossible Horse. By Anita Feagles. Illustrations by Dagmar Wilson. Scott, 1960. \$2.75. (8-11)

When Mike found a horse waiting for him when he alighted from the school bus, the reader is prepared for fun and when the horse tells Mike that he is looking for a pet boy, the reader is fully convinced.

Mike was permitted to keep the horse in the garage while the family car stood outside. Casey proved to be so demanding and possessive that even Mike grew uneasy. The horse would talk only to the children and he would do only what he wanted to do and when he wanted to do it. He went to a birthday party, he had to have a soda at the drugstore, he demanded a pair of pajamas and was altogether most difficult.

The story is told largely in dialog with a tongue-in-cheek seriousness and when Casey finally eliminates himself his reader is almost sorry although he shares Mike's relief. A

The Journey with Grandmother. By Edith Unnerstad. Illustrated by Claes Bäckström. Translated from the Swedish. Macmillan, 1960. \$3.00. (9-12)

Twelve-year-old Anders traveled from Vamhus, Sweden, with his grandmother and young aunt to Stockholm, Helsingfors,

Finland and Saint Petersburg, Russia, to earn money to save the family farm and to buy back a dearly loved mare and her foal.



The journey lasted for a year and in the city they made and sold baskets and plied their trade of haircrafters making wigs, switches, watchchains and bracelets from the hair their delighted customers furnished.

The time of the story is the first decade of this century when the last czar was still reigning in Russia and Finland was a Russian Grand Duchy.

The book is essentially the story of Anders' experiences but the indefatigable grandmother colors every page. The book is rich in wonderful human relationships. A

Mystery at Rustler's Fort. By Franklin Folsom. Illustrations by John J. Flogert, Jr. Harvey House, 1960. \$2.75. (10-15)

This is a well-plotted, well-written mystery with its locale the North Rim of the



Grand Canyon. Two fifteen-year-old cousins, a younger sister, a naturalist father, and

a bird loving mother make up a camping party to study the habits of mountain lions. An old hideout for cattle thieves, a jewelry store robbery, and a mysterious stranger combine to make many situations filled with suspense.

There is much to be learned about one of our great national parks and the wild-life there as the swiftly paced plot unfolds. The solution is plausible and satisfying.

A

Becky and Her Brave Cat Bluegrass. By Miriam Mason. Illustrated by Robert MacLean. Macmillan, 1960. \$2.75. (8-12)

Miss Mason has added another fine story of pioneer life to her long list. This time she has told the story of Daniel Boone's family and their pleasures and hardships. Becky was the youngest daughter and the



story is woven about her and her cat. The material has often been used but Miss Mason makes her people and situations life-like. The book is easy to read and children in the middle grades will like it.

A

A Penny a Day. By Walter de la Mare. Illustrated by Paul Kennedy. Knopf, 1960. \$3.00. (All ages)

Six tales of magic and suspense which the poet author told to his own family have been gathered into this distinguished book. The lilting sentences, the exquisite descriptions, and the vivid imagination all bear out the author's philosophy that "only the rarest kind of best in anything



is good enough for the young."

Some of the stories have been out of print for a long time and the publisher has done a real service in making them available again.

A

Biography

The Flagship Hope: Aaron Lopez. By Lloyd Alexander. Illustrated by Bernard Krigstein. Farrar, 1960. \$2.95. (10-15)

This is the story of a man who struggled to find himself as a man and as a Jew. It is the story, too, of man's struggle for freedom, for justice and for democracy. Escaping from the Inquisition, Lopez sailed to Newport, Rhode Island in 1752, establishing himself as the boldest of mer-



chant ship owners. His story is one of identification with great causes in the development of our nation, culminating in tireless work for the Revolution. Here is a story of challenge and inspiration for young Americans.

C

Sir Isaac Newton. By W. Robert Houston and M. Vere DeVault. Illustrated by Betty Cobb. Steck, 1960. \$1.75. (8-12)

This is a picture biography of the great scientist who lived over 250 years ago. Had it not been for the discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton, the satellite and rocket of



today would not have been possible. Simple text helps the pictures carry an exciting story for boys and girls. C

Heroines of the Early West. By Nancy Wilson Ross. Illustrated by Paul Galdone. Random, 1960. \$1.95. (9-14)

From early records, Miss Ross tells the stories of Sacajawea, the young Indian girl who guided the Lewis and Clark expedition; Narcissa Whitman, the first white woman to cross the Rocky Mountains; Mary Richardson Walker, the young missionary who spent her honeymoon traveling on horseback across the Rockies; Sister Mary Loyola who endured the hazardous voyage from Belgium to carry the story of Christianity to the Oregon Indians; and Abigail Scott Duniway who fought for equal rights for women. In addition to a story of life of earlier times, the reader discovers the role of pioneer women in shaping modern U.S.A. C

Florence Nightingale. By Ruth Fox Hume. Illustrated by Robert Frankenberg. Random, 1960. \$1.95. (9-14)

Landmark has added a bright star to its fine series of well done, inexpensive books of superior quality. The well-known story of Florence Nightingale's efforts in war and peace to establish modern medical standards for hospitals and the nursing profession is told again in clear uncluttered style. Career-minded girls will particularly enjoy this book. C

Social Studies

Faces Looking Up. By Mina Lewiton. Illustrated by Howard Simon. Harper, 1960. \$2.95. (9-14)

A much needed approach to providing for children understanding of other peoples is represented in this book of glimpses of twelve children going to school in twelve different countries. Authentic material in



lively story form helps young readers identify with other children in schools throughout the world. Clear style, excellent format, and interesting line drawings make this an easy to read book. C

What Does a Parachutist Do? By Wayne Hyde. Illustrated with photographs. Dodd, Mead, 1960. \$2.50. (8-12)

Written by a former paratrooper, this book describes the excitement and dangers encountered, the rigorous training needed and the valuable work done by parachutists. Emphasis is upon the contributions parachutists make to the peacetime pursuits of men. This story meets the needs of adventure-minded boys and girls. C

Some Folks Went West. By Donald L. Weismann. Illustrated by the author. Steck, 1960. \$2.25. (8-12)

To read this book is an inspiration. It tells the story of every-day people, not the

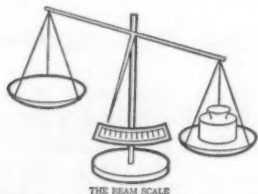


great heroes, who made the West a part of our nation. In style, it carries the art of simplicity; in format, it invites the young child and the older, reluctant reader, to stay with the story to the end; in philosophy, it helps the child understand that every-day living can be an adventure, bright and shining. C

Science

Realm of Measure. By Isaac Asimov. Illustrated by Robert Belmore. Houghton, 1960. \$2.75. (12-16)

Measuring things is a part of daily living, a "taken for granted" activity. Yet, the concept of measurement is one of the



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great achievements of the human mind for without it there could be no science, no industry, no commerce. The author

describes the history of the tools and techniques of measurement, and the underlying theories from the yardstick to the Theory of Relativity in simple, clear language. This book is good for adults who live with children as well as for high-powered youngsters. C

Wonders of the Anthill. By Sigmund A. Lavine. Illustrated by Ernest Hart. Dodd, 1960. \$2.95. (8-12)

Children, as well as adults, are fascinated by ants. And they should be, for scientists have discovered that many important industries and many human habits and characteristics are common among ants. Carpenters, doctors, engineers, farmers, masons, miners, policemen, queens, and slaves are found in the anthills of the world. The author's enthusiasm for ants and their ways is communicated to the reader. Special library binding insures this book against the ravages of heavy usage. C

The Book of the Atom. By Leonard de Vries. Illustrated by Gerard Van Straaten. Macmillan, 1960. \$3.95. (12-16)

This book is a history of the discovery of the atom and its multiple uses. Here is a story of great drama, the most significant



episode being that of the harnessing of the atom to benefit mankind. A true story, but "stranger than fiction," it will delight the science-minded child of high reading ability. C



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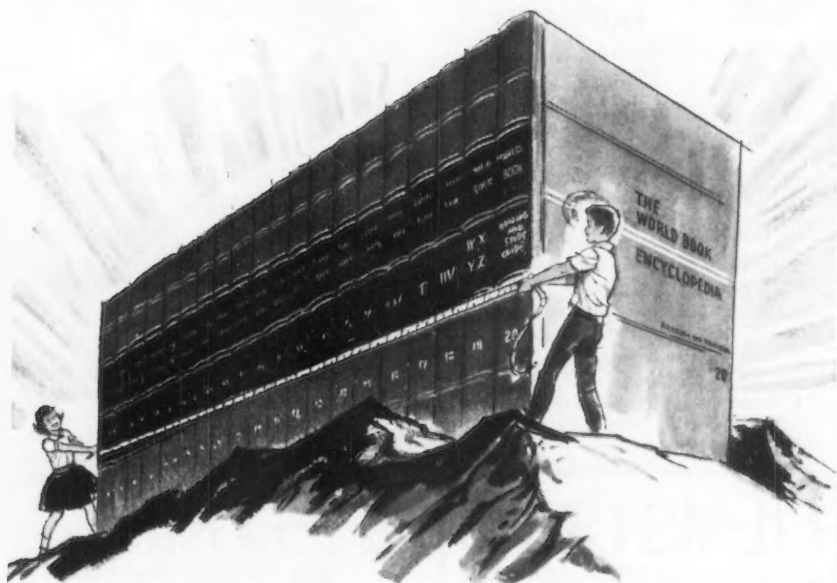
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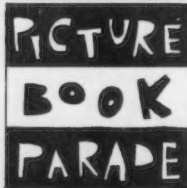
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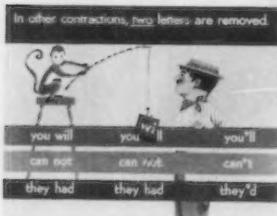
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